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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

THE TEACHER FACE TO FACE WITH HIMSELF IN RELATION TO THE COMMUNITY¹

Adam Curle, Professor of Education, University College of the South West, Exeter

IT would appear² that in the sphere of neurophysiology all action depends upon the way in which various systems of neurones within the brain become related or disrelated. The loss of a memory, for example, or repression to employ psycho-analytic terminology may, according to Eccles, occur when certain 'memory records' become insulated from the rest. But these physiological factors, though suggestive, are too technically complex for exact analogical use at this stage of knowledge.

When we approach the more specifically mental aspect of things, we enter a realm which is at once harder and easier to understand. We all have some personal experience of the workings of the mind, but since it is mind that perceives mind, all our judgments are subject to a peculiar uncertainty. For this reason there are many theories of mental structure, and any concepts we put forward are likely to be tentative half-truths. However, if they are congruent with what can be more objectively known, they are unlikely to be utterly false.

A large part of our mental activity is inevitably directed towards building up a picture of the world by which we can guide our behaviour. There is perhaps no such thing as an absolutely detached vision of the people and things around us, we interpret them in terms of our experience,

or to speak more exactly, in terms of the patterns of thought and feeling already within us. For this reason, so-called projective tests are of great value in diagnostic psychology. These consist of pictures or patterns to which the subject must give his own interpretation. If, for example, his responses contain frequent references to blood and carnage, one may suspect that a subterranean segment of his mind is deeply concerned with these things. Others will give entirely different responses, but ones which are equally indicative of what they 'see into' their environment.

There is good reason to suppose that we create a mental image of all the people and things which we experience. This image is not an exact photograph, but is affected by the way in which we see them, which in turn depends on the images already in existence. Consequently, our relationship with our friends is at least in part a product of all previous relationships, and we may be able to notice a certain consistency which runs through all our dealings with others. All our relationships are, in fact, dominated by what Rickman called 'the internal society'. This phrase suggests that we cannot consider internalized images as static, but as interacting. We do not, it seems, create isolated images, but images which are connected because the originals from which they are drawn, were dynamically connected in our lives. A child, for instance, internalizes images of his parents and his brothers and sisters, and these form part of a dynamic system in his mind reflecting, in a distorting mirror, the whole situation which he has experienced. Moreover, he carries around with him this picture of his family and deals with the subsequent circumstances of his life in terms of it. The continuance of these patterns of reaction is simply illustrated by the very common example of the man whose relationships with his wife are dominated by the expectation that she will behave like his mother.

These internalized patterns lie deep in the core

¹ I must begin by explaining that what follows is not a verbatim record of my talk in the series 'The Teacher Face to Face'. I had indeed written a script, but at the last moment decided that it was both inappropriate and inadequate, so spoke extempore. However, if I said anything of interest, I believe it was the very tentative scheme I outlined for describing the situation implied by my title 'The Teacher Face to Face with Himself in Relation to the Community'. This suggests that there is a connection between the individual's relationship to himself and his relationship to his fellowmen. This is perhaps a very banal point, but the aim of psychology is to codify and organize the obvious conclusions of commonsense, and I feel that there is still plenty of scope for investigation into the structure underlying human relationships.

Perhaps at a later period I may be allowed space in *The New Era* to develop my theme into a discussion of the issues which occupied the last part of my talk. In this I tried to show how a particular attitude towards the structure of the human mind and of human relations might be applied to work in that small corner of the large educational field with which I am personally concerned, namely the training of teachers.

² See *The Neuro-Physiological Basis of Mind*. J. C. Eccles. Clarendon Press, 1953. 25/-.

of personality. It is not simply that they determine habits of reaction, but that the relationships they have within the personality—derived in a sense from their external relationship, real or imagined, with the objects from which they are taken—determines the whole emotional life of the individual. Thus when we speak of conflict, we speak of tension between two or more segments of the pattern of internalized images, both of which call for a different manner of response to external circumstances.

It would be false to believe that internalized images need follow even approximately the objects from which they are taken. Melanie Klein, who gives a terrifying picture of the strange pantheon inhabiting the child's mind, writes as follows: 'We get to look upon the child's fear of being devoured, or cut up, or torn to pieces, or its terror of being surrounded and pursued by menacing figures, as a regular component of its mental life; and we know that the man-eating wolf, the fire-spewing dragon and all the evil monsters out of myths and fairy stories flourish and exert their unconscious influence in the fantasy of each individual child, and it feels itself threatened and persecuted by those evil shapes. But I think we can know more than this. I have no doubt from my own analytic observations that the real objects behind those imaginary, terrifying figures are the child's own parents, and those dreadful shapes in some way reflect the features of its father and mother, however distorted and fantastic the resemblance may be.'

According to Fairbairn, the freedom of the individual from various forms of neurosis and insanity, depends on his ability to use these internalized figures in order to create realistic relationships with others. By realistic, I mean simply relationships which work, which are the reciprocal, give and take relationships essential to the prosperity of any friendly association. As I have said, we form our picture of the world in terms of the picture of it which we have built up. If that picture is highly unreal, dominated, for instance, by what Klein calls 'persecutors', then we will behave in our human relations with suspicion or with abject submissiveness. If, on the other hand, our picture of the world has been built up in circumstances which did not impose great emotional pressures on us, we shall see it more objectively.

To talk about objectivity may seem to contra-

dict what I have already said, but all these things are relative. The person who sees things in terms of the 'persecutor' will not be able to see them also in terms of other people; but an image which corresponds less fantastically to its object will act as a bridge leading the individual to that object rather than as a barrier separating him from it. In the latter case, the image will have performed its real function, and will then be very largely superseded by the new form of reality created by a concrete relationship. This may sound mysterious, but in fact it is an experience common to everyone. The preliminary stages of what later becomes close friendship are often obscured because we try to understand people in terms of the internalized experience we already possess. Only later do we learn to value them, as the phrase goes, for themselves.

It is worth briefly commenting on one theory of the mechanics of the realistic, as opposed to the fantastic image. It seems likely that the very young child does not experience his mother as a single person, but as a number of individuals according to her mood or what she is doing. He will see her as a kind person who feeds him, as a cruel person who does not feed him when hungry, and so on. Each of these images of her will form part of the complex hierarchy upon which he bases his response to the world. But at a later period, he realizes that all these persons are one. Some children are unable emotionally to accept the fact that the good and the bad are in fact unified within the same object, and so maintain a type of dichotomy in their minds. Reality for them is always split, and instead of accepting the inconsistencies and the mixed virtue and vice of life as a whole, they arbitrarily segregate their experience into different compartments. They see all things as white or black, good or bad, beautiful or ugly. They impose these categories on individuals and their relationships with them consequently tend to be unrealistic and lopsided. Demanding perfection, they are horrified at any failing and break off the relationship, or else refuse to recognize it and project it outwards in the form of prejudice or irrational hatred.

It must be emphasized that this type of splitting, implies also a lack of communicability between the various figures of the 'internal society'. Those who can tolerate the inevitable mixture of good and bad, at least in part, cannot only see things more clearly in terms of what

they are, but have also a more unified 'internal society'. Of course divisions of this type are never absolute. There are always regions of the mind which harbour irrational fears and fantasies, and what we call mental stress is painful simply because it touches upon these hidden parts and activates these fears. It is well known to everyone, that when people are undergoing emotional strain, they are apt to act unreasonably, to see non-existent threats, to impute evil motives to others. They are reacting in terms of parts of their personalities which have become segregated from the inter-connected balance of the rest.

If these arguments are approximately correct, we can appreciate one of the paradoxes of mental life. In order to operate at all, it forms a series of images, more or less connected, of the world which supplies its experience. But however favourable the circumstances of upbringing, these images must always remain to some extent separate, since they correspond to a world which is itself diversified. We may avoid having a pantheon of images of one person, but at the same time we cannot share the same image between two separate people. The results in both cases are equally dangerous and unrealistic. But any degree of separation implies an incomplete view. In fact it appears to be an inherent part of our nature that we cannot see things whole.

This can be looked at in another way. We operate at different moments through different parts of our personality (and, no doubt, of our nervous system). But at the same time that we specialize ourselves to deal with a particular situation, we lose, so to speak, the balanced co-operation of the remainder of our faculties. Even when we stop doing whatever we were doing, there may be a carry-over of an inappropriate attitude to a new task. A simple illustration will explain what I mean. It has several times happened to me that after reading something intentionally funny, such as Beachcomber's column, I have found a perfectly serious article excruciatingly comic. This is not purely because my appreciation of pomposity or absurdity has been sharpened, but because the part of my personality which responds to humour has remained active. In the normal operations of the mind there is, of course, a type of homeostatic quality which keeps a balance between our various moods and emotional or intellectual functions, so that we are able to restore the balance between

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one function and another, and so that our moods of melancholy or elation are not too protracted—when they are it is a symptom of some malady, such as manic-depressive insanity. But to the extent that one mood inevitably precludes another, there is a component of unreality in all our attitudes. Whenever, as can happen several times each day, we are sad without particular reason, we are responding to a semi-autonomous element within us. With very little exaggeration, we can project these transient moods on to other people, bringing them all too often pain and discomfort. The sudden spurt of anxiety which we may feel as a result of some manoeuvre in the complex interplay of our internal parts, seldom leaves our friends untouched.

This is the stuff of life and I want to emphasize how much of our behaviour is an automatic response to what has gone before, and the extent to which our relationships with others (which in turn decide in part the future form of our reactions) is the product of circumstances beyond our control. Unless this is realized, there is little chance of understanding another type of activity.

In order to see how these mental mechanics

operate, it is necessary to consider more specifically their effects upon our relationships with others. If the communications between the several figures of our internal society are poor, our relationship with other individuals will be impoverished for several reasons.

Firstly, the relationship will be unrealistic because only a limited amount of experience (i.e. of our total personality) will be brought to bear upon it; consequently it will be seen out of proportion, unmediated by the balance of the whole. Secondly, this form of unbalance means that the relationship will be dominated by a particular facet of my personality, and will not flower from an equal interaction between me and my friend. Thirdly, since the segmented nature of my personality results from emotional stress which leaves a legacy of pain and unmet needs, I shall use the relationship for my own subjective ends; I shall constantly and without reference to the needs of my friend, be attempting to extract from my contact with him, something which will alleviate my own particular anguish. It is because neurotic disturbance is apt to disrupt human relations in this way, that it is so often egocentric. In fact the most sinister effect of emotional pressure is to break down the bridges linking our separate lives to those of other people. It is the great tragedy of the neurotic individual that having been damaged by—in most cases—lack of secure affection, he develops an emotional machinery which separates him from the affection of other people and thus perpetuates his misery. It prevents the individual from escaping from himself into close identification with another person's existence.

These ideas may suggest that there is a pattern carrying right through from the neurological to the interpersonal spheres: segmentation within the personality leads to forms of relationship which effectively separate the individual from his fellows by projecting what has been called a 'fantasy screen' between them.

I must conclude this part of my argument by a rather over-simplified summing up. The burden of what I have been trying to explain is that there is a close connection between the inner communications of the various structures of the individual's personality, and the communications which he establishes with others outside himself. This appears to me to be a convenient way of describing a highly complex set of factors which

are both psychological (that is mental) and social. In some ways it is more convenient than the elaborate mental geography plotted by the depth psychologists, since it is very hard to transfer to social issues concepts which have been developed to elucidate the complexities of the inner life of the individual.

But I find it impossible to leave the matter, here, for the framing of hypotheses only leads us to the point where we begin to assess them in terms of the values which are of greatest importance to the lives of men and women. In particular the question of freedom must occupy our attention, not only as a social goal, but as a spiritual problem, and I would feel that any psychological formulation was incomplete unless its implications for such issues were taken beyond the strictly experimental sphere. This is especially true if they are to be applied to the multiple human situations involved in teaching.

I take it that the essence of freedom is the capacity to choose, but where choice is predictable, it is clear that the individual's decision is made by the situation rather than by an act of pure volition or reasoning on his part. He may think of it as being an independent choice, but in fact he is falling into an ancient error which salves his self-respect. On the surface, the issue is simple: human behaviour is either unpredictable (that is, allows for the presence of free-will) or it is not—there is no concrete proof of the existence of free-will, but there is quite a lot of evidence for prediction (in fact we base many of our actions on predictions about other people); therefore, when we are unable to make predictions it is simply because we do not have the necessary information on which to base our calculations. It is therefore reasonable to suppose that even the most complex actions were determined by an accumulation of situations and could have been predicted had we possessed all the relevant information.

But without entering a well-tilled philosophical field, it may be possible to find a different way of looking at some aspects of behaviour. In the study of psychopathology, one is particularly struck by the highly predictable reactions of certain paranoid and compulsive neurotic patients. Even if it is hard to foretell their precise actions in given situations, their emotional response is remarkably regular.

The reason for this is understandable in the

context of what we have already discussed. The greater the degree of inner dislocation associated with these disorders, the less is the individual in touch with his fellows, and therefore the less is his behaviour modified through contact with them. The essence of his trouble is that he is shut in with a perpetual emotional crisis, whose very nature cuts him off from the means of solution. This accounts for the compulsively repetitive and therefore predictable quality in his actions. This type of person tends to react continually to a static situation which he carries around within himself, and to which he relates the most diverse circumstances of his life.

In the average person one finds, it is true, elements of the last situation. But there are also important differences which can best be looked at in terms of communications. His memories, and other distillations of past experience in the shape of needs or anxieties, are not so irrevocably separate. They exist, as it were, in psychic equilibrium in which homeostasis will be re-established easily after any violent swing of the emotional pendulum. Because he possesses this more benign, less demanding internal structure, his relations with others are more viable. Because he is not dominated by internal needs of his own, he is capable of responding to the needs of others.

The situation to which this type of person reacts is not only much larger, since it includes a great number of people, but dynamic, since it includes the shifting needs of other individuals and the possibility of changing attitudes on the part of the central figure whom we are discussing. Any attempt to predict his behaviour must, therefore, be framed in a different way. We change, so to speak, from an Euclidian proposition to a problem in relativity. The more effective an individual's communications, both internally and externally, the more complex will become any attempt at prediction, since it will have to include the behaviour of all the individuals with whom he is in contact.

But this difference in the type and extent of communications which are theoretically available to different people only complicates and does not solve the problem. We must go further if we are to get at the nature of freedom.

The subtle genius of Freud recognized what he called Eros, the drive towards life, co-operation, altruism, creativeness, and coming together with others. But he also recognized Thanatos or the

death wish, which typified man's wish for separation, his impulses for destruction and violence, his selfish existence as a unity rather than a unity of society. Subsequent work has shown that in the process of building up his picture of the world and of other people, the young child's mind operates inevitably through a process of ambivalence in which both tendencies are involved. This mechanic of maturation appears to be universal and is sufficiently well known for present discussion to be unnecessary. Suffice it to say that the process of becoming linked with others just as effectively establishes the basis of egocentric isolation. At the same time the tension of opposition between these two tendencies generates indispensable psychic energy. Thus it is clear that the very process of becoming human beings standing in a positive and constructive relation to each other, includes the development of forces which can destroy this relationship. In the compulsive and paranoid patients to whom I referred, Thanatos is in the ascendent. But it is present in all of us as a very function of our humanity. This could be a psychological interpretation of original sin and it would not in my opinion be contrary to

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its theological definition, for clearly any fact of general validity so far as human nature is concerned, must be expressed through certain aspects of the human psyche. Whatever the origin of the fact, it must still be noticeable to people, whether they believe in the origin or not.

It follows from this, that we are all subject to some loss of freedom, since we are entwined in the needs of a self which is separate from others, with needs which must be met, if necessary at the expense of others. But at least those of us who are 'normal' satisfy these needs only at the expense of considerable inner conflict.

The crux of the whole matter is whether the solution to this moral conflict between Eros and Thanatos, good and evil, God and the Devil, or however we phrase it, is always determined by factors outside our conscious control. In many cases it clearly is, but these need not concern us—we need to discover only a single narrow loophole for the operation of a different type of freedom. It is at this point that psychology as a scientific discipline, if not a science, ceases to be of much help to us. The study of external factors which heighten or diminish the call of selfish needs, bears little relation to what people themselves feel about their selves. We all feel the need for physical and emotional stimuli of various kinds, but we give very different value to these stimuli. To some they are all-important. To others they are shameful, representing a secret

imprisoning guilt. To yet others, they are simply unimportant, however urgent. Now this evaluation of needs bears a direct relationship to our concern for others—a mother will forget her own hunger if her children are clamouring for food. In the last resort, men and women who are dedicated to the service of some purpose outside themselves, will be so intent on the good of others, the exaltation of an ideal, the worship of God, that their own needs will in time change and diminish. In fact the moral struggle between Eros and Thanatos can be resolved by reference to what is beyond oneself, and by one's altered evaluation of one's own importance. But this is no effortless loosing of bonds such as typifies the neurotic mechanism of escape from conflict by flight into self-abasement and subservience. It cannot occur without effort, and only through the depth and intensity of our moral values are we able to oppose and partly to overcome what would seem to be a universal, a biological tendency to egocentricity.

Freedom, then, is the ability to deny consciously certain facts of our nature and eventually to eradicate them. It is a final overcoming of the limitations of self through the establishment of wider loyalties in communication and communion. One point must be emphasized. Freedom of this type cannot be won for its own sake. The end for which it is sought determines whether or not it is gained.

CONSCIOUS AND UNCONSCIOUS LOYALTIES

Dr. Augusta Bonnard, Consultant Psychiatrist of the East London Child Guidance Clinic

NOWADAYS we take it for granted that the expression 'a good parent-child relationship' is not only self-explanatory but also that it epitomizes something which is wholly good. However, whether we be teachers or psychiatrists, we have to ask ourselves when certain problems arise, 'Good for whom and to whom?' The parents who indulge their child at a year are good parents and, if they continue to do so, they may have a very happy child, especially if it remains the youngest, but what of its future capacity for self-restraint? Similarly, parents of an inquisitive child may have shown or told it about *all* it asked, rather than curb its thirst for knowledge. Or there is the child who willingly takes over the parents' public and private attitudes and beliefs, as if they had always been its own. No doubt we

should call such a child 'a good child with a good relationship to its parents'. Another type of 'good' child is one who either prefers everything which its parents provide, or who fears contrasts with that to which it has become habituated in the home. Perhaps we can now see that the 'goodness' in a parent-child relationship is only wholly good in so far as it serves, in an affectionate way, to induct the child into appreciation of the customs and expectations of the external Society within which its family lives. The two great institutions of most children's lives are home and school. In so far as the former serves as a real introduction to the latter, school is but a specialized proving ground for ideas and social activities. But, if for any reason, school life confronts the child with factors grossly alien to it, or to im-

portant parental attitudes, then it will feel threatened. Obedience to the teacher may then feel like disobedience or disloyalty to the parents. Certain school problems are of this nature. Some are as trifling as the matter of a child's accent or speech mannerisms, while others are most grave and complex. Among the latter is the condition known as 'school phobia', i.e. irrational fear of going to and remaining in school. As here used, 'school phobia' is applied only to those children whose sudden and absolute refusal to attend school stands in contrast to their previously co-operative attitude while inside the classroom. Their refusal is usually accompanied by excuses of such a trifling or absurd nature, and by such clinging behaviour to their parents, as to suggest hysteria or malingering.

While there are many individual precipitating causes for this condition, there seems to me to be only one overall explanation, so far verified in the cases investigated at the East London Child Guidance Clinic. It is that the child feels overwhelmed by the awareness (sometimes correctly founded in reality and less often, misconstrued in phantasy) that its home environment differs in frightening degree and quality, from that presented to it by the outside world (school and other pupils). In order to sustain its ignorance of frightening or/and secret differences, whether real or imaginary, and thereby preserve its home loyalties, it resolves the conflict of knowing, by forswearing external Society (the school environment). It should be noted that if this grave symptomatic condition of refusal to attend school persists long enough, it may then receive the official designation of truancy, and be legally handled and punished as such, including by committal to an Approved School.

The type of school phobia in question is a pathological instance of a conflict of loyalties, not merely between school and home, but between differing types of conscious and unconscious loyalties to the people in it. Let us examine the origins of some of these attitudes of mind which bind an individual, whether to another, or to a group or to customs. In an article in the *New Era*¹ Mr. W. Rawson defines a certain type of loyalty as 'if it were neither good nor bad in itself, but derived its moral value from the nature of its object'. He puts the matter in a nutshell, but whence stems this type of 'blind' or

uncritical 'taking-over', and its enactment into attitudes and behaviour? It originates out of the dependency of the infant, its lack of development of the instruments of experience and from its passive appreciation of those (usually the mother) whose company is associated with the promotion of comfort. Primary sustenance thus becomes equated in our minds with the intake of nourishment. This state of need and acceptance is associated with yearning for the giver, and, thence, with affection directed towards the giver's recognizable presence. In these early phases, the giver's many attributes come to form part of a single 'gestalt' of provision of comfort or banishment of discomfort. They come to be expected, and thence as it were passively appropriated as a unity, even when this includes some kind of demand (such as change of posture, temperature, bathing, habit-training, and so on, up the scale of maturation). Not only does the infant identify food and care with the giver, and itself with both, but its earliest relationship is that of taking them all in together. This is the stage of identification described in psycho-analytic terms, as introjection. It is as uncritical as is hunger for food or its later counterpart, hunger for affection.

Thus the small child, in similar fashion, takes over attitudes, and injunctions, which, when capable of verbalization and action, form the sub-stratum of beliefs. As soon as the child is able, it both wishes, and is encouraged, to imitate the ways of its home environment. This represents a further and overlapping stage of identification. In so far as its impulses or even judgments cause it to behave differently, it soon becomes aware that these are regarded as wrong or undesirable. It is by modes such as these that an immense ramifying fabric of character and conduct formation is laid down, later to be actively cemented by the child's wish to be loved and to emulate those whom it loves. As long as it is able to do so, there is little cause either for internal or external conflict. But should it now be moved to assert its individual wishes which run counter to those of its environment (and which could be regarded as normal or even desirable, elsewhere than in its home), it stands in danger, first of censure, and then of consequent conflict and guilt.

The children who are the subjects of school phobia tend to be conformist, sometimes to the point of passivity. They will not, therefore,

¹ Volume 36 (iii) March, 1954.

provide us with instances of rebelliousness, but of acceptance. The parent(s) in question, most commonly the mother, demand or instil unquestioning acceptance of their emotional states and beliefs. The greater the discrepancy between what the child senses to be wrong and yet has to accept, the greater, in these instances, will be the tie, in order to lessen the potential conflict, between parent and child. The two, between them, present a picture of unquestioning devotion and concern, sometimes misleadingly concealed behind a defensive façade of ineffectual naughtiness. This situation exemplifies childish or immature loyalty of an especial kind. These relationships permit no significant outside influence to trespass upon them, without the accusation of disloyalty, for many of the parents in question are paranoid in varying degree. Their private attitude of contemptuous censoriousness for other people's ways and opinions, or their seclusiveness, is the disguised presentation of fear arising out of jealousy and suspicion. For this especial child, to turn to others for knowledge of correct attitudes and beliefs is to belittle and endanger their own deviant peculiarities. Doubt in these children comes to be felt as being disloyal and thence equivalent to lack of devotion; and here we come to loyalty in its conscious and idealistically determined forms.

Let us assume that the child has started its school attendance. Generally the first four or five years pass without anything unusual being apparent. However, the child's reality sense is progressively growing and highlighting discrepancies. In order to 'ride' with both systems of reality (school and home) it must either banish controversial thought or it must increase its bonds of loyalty to its parent(s), or successfully 'double think' (George Orwell in '1984'). What breaks these children down into school phobia most commonly, i.e. 40 per cent. of them, is change of school. The sudden change of one of the two slowly familiarized systems proves too much, and the child cannot make a further adjustment.

The other common likelihood is that the parent's disturbance will be exacerbated, sometimes to psychotic intensity, so that the child is both frightened of, and frightened for, its sick parent. This last is loyalty of the highest degree. The child becomes the guardian of its parent and in so doing, it also, in order to save itself from fear, adopts the reality of the parental attitudes

and thereby reverts, as a defence, to its truly helpless infantile identifications. Here we have all levels of loyalty at work. Collectively, they enslave the child and, ironically, render outside Society into its potential seducer.

A third stimulus for breakdown into school phobia should be mentioned. If a teacher, whether for real or phantasied reasons, takes on aspects of the frighteningly irrational parent(s), then the child may run away from this one of its two threatening situations in order to remain 'at peace' with the more familiar, and actually inescapable home.

The case now to be described is the second of its kind which has come my way, in that the child and its pathological home circumstances were both known to me for some time before it broke down. For obvious reasons, only the barest of details can be given. A brother had been referred to the Clinic for inability to learn at school, extreme apprehensiveness and a variety of other severe symptoms. After a while it was realized that the father, a professional man, with a true mania for rituals and cleanliness, detested and denigrated his son, and despised his wife. The daughter was the apple of his eye and was often used in such a way as to show both mother and son that they were worthless in his eyes. So were many other people, and in consequence the family had to lead a curiously isolated and seclusive life. Furthermore, the brother used to maltreat the sister and mother, in much the same way as the father maltreated him. Especial steps were finally taken to help this boy out of a hopelessly humiliating and harmful *impasse*. In the meantime, the sister was recognized to be a preternaturally shy and wordless child, but only when in company. Otherwise, she gave the air, and was known, to be lively at home, where she held her own, as she grew older, with her brother. The father showered her with attentions to the exclusion of the rest of the family. It seemed to me that this child, at least, would not need to feel inferior and threatened. However, not many months after she started school life, which she enjoyed, she began recurrently to complain of nausea and diarrhoea as an excuse to stay away. She had long since ceased to chat to, or confide in, her mother, and of the few friends she had to her home, these were instantly dropped as soon as the father came indoors. The two then used to go off into another room and laugh and

talk inordinately. The father's contempt for everyone else was openly voiced to her, within the home and, as stated, it included her mother and brother. Then suddenly, as a result of an occurrence which re-evoked the little girl's unconscious longing for a more appropriate and freely social existence, she begged desperately to stop school altogether. This terrified demand was, by this time, accompanied by daily morning diarrhoea and a succession of minor complaints, necessitating absence through apparent physical sickness. Whenever persuaded to go to school she showed signs of distress and disorientation, such as when a particular child or a particular position in the classroom were not available to her, or if she had to leave school by a different door. Her apprehensiveness of school failure was intense, and her shyness and manifest anxiety were painful to the beholder. It would appear that she could only be gay, talkative and carefree when with her father. This last is, perhaps, the most misleading feature of any. Under his compelling spell of abnormality, she functioned to please him in his presence, but could not be lively with anyone else, with the exception of her brother. She was actually devoted to him but she was exploited by her father to be a source of humiliation to him and he reacted to her as such. With her mother she dare not speak freely, since she felt embarrassed towards her by virtue of her father's attitude of contempt, and with other children, she dare not be natural. This state is that of alienation, in its widest sense. It compounded of mutually conflicting loyalties (in this instance to more than one person) either displaying the most evolved type of devotion, but bereft of the freedom of discriminative judgment, or else displaying the most archaic and chaotic type of loyalty, namely multiple mirroring of multiple attitudes.

As anti-climax, another case of school phobia will be described, in which the deviancy of the family was based on misapprehension and phantasy. A Jewish boy, an only child and a delightful pupil, had been noticed not only to have changed for the worse in character and application, but to truant from school at playtime. At that time, his school attendance was being enforced by his mother or he would not have appeared there at all. These changes of behaviour had come about during the preceding two months. Three months previously the mother had undergone a minor

operation. The pre-anaesthetic routine examination revealed her to be a diabetic. Her own mother was also a diabetic, and the boy's father called on her daily to give her an insulin injection, he being ex-R.A.M.C. It should be added that the boy was very good looking, but he and his mother were both so dark and exotic as to be of alien appearance in their own Jewish community. She was quite aware that her son's truancy arose out of his anxiety on her behalf, and that it took on a most complicated and even comic form, that of sleuthing her during the day. In talking to the boy it was realized that he felt he came of a very queer and dangerously different race, namely 'the diabetics', people whose legs could rot away or who passed into coma. I discovered later that he had anxiously and secretly derived this clinical information elsewhere than in the family, which was a very stable and reasonable one. Another stimulus for his phantasy of deviancy arose out of his father's 'magical', yet attacking, relationship to his Grannie. There were also some other 'normal' circumstances which had led to phantastic misconstruction. For instance, owing to housing difficulties, the boy was again sharing the parents' bedroom. Certain of this devoted boy's phantasied deviancies and dangers were talked over with him, and by being able to assure him that the 'grown-ups knew how to look after themselves', and that his mother would not envy him his sweets beyond endurance, his school phobia dissolved away. He also went out to play again. As will be realized, familial diabetes and the deviations which came to be associated with it, were the triggers which set off the re-activation of an Oedipal problem, itself a conflict of loyalties.

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YOUTH ALIYAH THINKS AGAIN

Margot Hicklin

ON October 4th, the Children and Youth Aliyah held a one-day conference at Bedford College, London, to report progress on the work it has been carrying on since 1934. During the past twenty years, 70,000 children and adolescents from nearly every country in the world have been brought to Israel under its auspices, and it has set up a great many establishments for their training both inside and outside of Israel. The young men and women now going to work in the cities and villages of Israel, are to a large extent, its graduates, and at the present moment, new young populations are awaiting training and in process of being trained for life in Israel.

Mrs. Lorna Wingate, Co-Chairman of Youth Aliyah and widow of the late General Wingate after whom Israel's latest Children's Village is named, opened the conference. She spoke of this new generation, and said that Youth Aliyah no longer takes children away from their parents as it used to do when necessity demanded it in the emergency days of Hitler, but treats them as a link which holds out hope to the newly arriving families, of an adaptation to Israel's way of life with and through the children.

Dr. Norman Bentwich, Emeritus Professor of the Hebrew University of Jerusalem, then gave a historical survey of the work of Youth Aliyah. It started 22 years ago in Berlin, and was originally a middle-class movement. Sons and daughters of professional and business men received some preparation for immigration into Israel, and in 1933, the first ten children went to a Jewish Village in Palestine as it then was. Ben Shemen, now the most famous of the Children's Villages, received them. 'Aliyah' means the going-up to Israel, a physical as well as a spiritual movement upwards, from persecution and degradation to a sense of belonging and of home. From 1934, two kinds of collective settlement received the children: those that were bound in the orthodox tradition, and those who were not. In principle, children were to follow the ways of their parents, though in practice a child often changed its views once it had become aware of a problem and made up its own mind. In those days children stayed in the settlements for 2-3 years, and when they had been fully integrated into the way of life, they went on as a group to a new settlement, to live as pioneers until this new collective had established itself.

Professor Bentwich distinguished four periods in the work of Youth Aliyah: (1) from 1934 until

1939 when 5,000 children and adolescents came from Germany, Austria and Czechoslovakia, in flight from Hitler. All these had had some training for agricultural life in their former home countries. (2) The period during World War II when 10,000 came from the Continent of Europe in spite of all the frontier barriers; they came from Poland and Eastern Europe, through to Palestine. Among these, there were children of 9-10 years whereas the usual age range of Youth Aliyah is from 13 to 17 years. (3) 1945-1948 when immigration had officially been almost stopped, and illegal immigrants were caught by the British authorities and many sent to camps on Cyprus. Fifteen thousand young people arrived in spite of this. During their confinement on Cyprus they received training by the workers of Youth Aliyah which would fit them for life in Israel's settlements when the frontier opened. (4) When Israel became a nation in 1948, a great expansion took place, and 40,000 adolescents came into the care of Youth Aliyah, this time two-thirds from oriental countries, the Yemen, Iraq, Turkey, North Africa, and Egypt. What were the aims underlying their education? How did Youth Aliyah achieve them?

Mr. Y. Gaertner, Deputy Director, Department of Education, Youth Aliyah, Jerusalem, gave the outline of work done with the many groups received until now. During the first fifteen years, he explained, the adolescents had come unaccompanied by their families. Placing them in foster homes was out of the question as settled families existed in Israel in quite insufficient numbers to act as foster parents. Besides, the principle of education in an adolescent group was to help wean them from dependence upon their families towards a mature and responsible citizenship of their new country. The method chosen, was group education of a special kind. A group of about forty youngsters of both sexes—co-education was always basic to Youth Aliyah—and one older person who was teacher and youth leader, elder brother and guide, philosopher and friend in one. His professional title was 'Madrish', a word which includes all this unique combination of functions. He lived with the children, taught them, worked with them, cared for their welfare, and helped them to find their way into the adult stage of life. These groups of Youth Aliyah might function within a Children's Village, a settlement, or in some residential establishment belonging to Youth Aliyah. The aim of this education was eventual settlement on the land,

in one of the collective farms, in accordance with the national ideal. It is claimed by Mr. Gaertner that although the majority of these young people came from some kind of abnormal background, with persecution on account of race and religion as part of their experience, the number of failures in adjustment was relatively small. He thinks the reason lies in the strength which the group gave them, to overcome their individual difficulties and live for a common purpose. This does not mean there were no problems. Group life creates tensions, and some children were not fit to bear these tensions, and as there was no alternative form of education for them in those days, this minority was not well catered for, full training in a craft which would have enabled them to live elsewhere, for instance in a city, was not given, as the education was entirely directed towards life on the land. Thus, during the first fifteen years, young people who left the settlements and went to the towns, had a hard time making a career for themselves. To-day this is no longer the case.

Nowadays, serious thought is given to alternative training for a vocation whilst the adolescents are in the settlement or Children's Village, and this change has come about during the last three or four years, because of the large number of oriental Jewish children who came to Israel, with or without their families, and who have known only city life and have had no preparation at all for the kind of life an agricultural settlement can offer. The idea of independence and autonomy, which inspired the European settlers, means little to them; no adolescent crisis separates them from the strong family ties that are characteristic of Eastern families. Most of them have had no education at all by the age of 12 or 13, and have to be taught elementary things in an elementary way. Their intellect tends to resist abstract thinking, and their sense of values is totally different from that of the Europeans. Socially and culturally they have little in common with the older settlers; group life does not appeal to them, nor does life on the land. To impose the accepted standards, all in one piece, on these newcomers could lead only to revolt, and it is therefore the new policy of Youth Aliyah to introduce them gradually and in stages to the new way of life, bringing along the parents in every way possible so as not to interfere with the coherence of the family. Tradition is respected, and only when the young person is himself able to judge between the old and the new, will he be brought to live the new life among his fellows from the Western world. Along with this change, more attention is being paid to individual differences, and voca-

tional choice and training is widened. By these means it is hoped that the parents will eventually share in the common aim as well as their children, and settle happily.

That there are deviants among any community of children, is a world-wide problem. Dr. F. H. Stone, M.B., M.R.C.P., Psychiatric Director, Lasker Mental Hygiene Centre, Jerusalem, spoke of what is being done to co-operate with Youth Aliyah in helping their staffs with problem adolescents. Youth Aliyah has always had some homes for physically or mentally handicapped children, or has used those in existence in the country, some of which were good, some indifferent, and some bad. Since the Lasker Centre began its work in Jerusalem in 1950, the Child Guidance side of it consists of two parts: advice and treatment for the difficult child (or parent) reared in its own home, and diagnosis and help for the Children of Youth Aliyah and their helpers. Normal Child Guidance techniques did not prove to be successful with the type of child that had immigrated from Eastern countries, because these methods were standardized for people of European culture. Examples such as the following show the unsuitability of tests: a Moroccan child fails on all the verbal tests because its experience has nothing comparable to offer, but comes out top in the maze test—one in which the task is to find one's way out of a sort of labyrinth. Whether this is due to his ability literally to wriggle out of a tight corner, or whatever else the explanation may be, it became clear that Western standards simply could not do justice to the intellectual equipment of these children. The same sort of thing happened when an attempt was made to interpret the children's drawings; certain criteria accepted as denoting abnormality all over the Western world, appeared regularly among normal children's drawings in the Eastern group of adolescents! As for behaviour, certain children would lie on the floor for several hours without moving or speaking, a symptom which would alarm any psychiatrist as a really grave condition in a Western child. One learns, however, that the Eastern child regularly resorts to this method when it wants to show that it is offended! Difficult though it may be for the Youth Aliyah staffs to distinguish intellectual levels among these children, one thing can be stated: their emotional maturity certainly is less than that of Western children of the same age.

Youth Aliyah has gradually developed its own institutions for adolescents in need of special education for whatever reason; and the staffs of Lasker Centre visit these regularly to discuss with the staff group, not only the children's problems

but the teachers' own problems with regard to the children. This is done regularly, whether the interval is one week, one month or three months, and the results are dramatically telling. After original resistance and scepticism, Youth Aliyah is now convinced of the efficacy of this method.

The second line of attack is selection and screening at the outset. Children are seen in the Reception Camps where they stay until it is possible to decide which place is most suitable for them, or whether they need special treatment for educational, social or physical reasons. The resident social worker and youth leader base their observations not on standard tests but on observations during dances, games, at table, and in the child's ordinary daily routine. The tests may not show whether the child is deviant, but the group itself will tell by their acceptance or rejection of the member. (At this point one would like to be a little reserved about Dr. Stone's certainty that the feelings of the group are trustworthy yardsticks for discovering the difficult child. We were, however, assured by him in personal conversation that these tentative findings are the subject of a long-term study now in progress and that no foregone conclusions will be drawn at the present time.)

Another interesting point made by Dr. Stone concerned the use of interim care for children from North Africa on the way to Israel. Those who were given this opportunity for group integration in the South of France before coming to Israel showed far less difficulty than those directly immigrating from Morocco. The explanation seems to be that the latter had no chance of developing that preliminary group identification which acts as a buffer to some of their problems.

With regard to the training of the Madrich—the all-in-one adult who cares for the adolescents in Youth Aliyah groups, Mr. Gaertner told us that selection is the most important factor. Favourite age for training is 20-25, but more mature persons have also done very well. The training lasts 15 months, and is to fit the adult for all the functions involved in communal living and schooling, with the exception of agricultural and vocational training given by specialists. In the future, the possibility of further specialization will certainly have to be considered, for the strain upon the Madrich, whose working hours are practically unlimited, is so great that hardly any survive the life for more than five years, and most turn after that to an ordinary teaching career which enables them to lead a normal personal life. The writer asked at question time whether it would not be conceivable to use the family system and smaller groups, with a married couple instead of a single man as

leaders. Mr. Gaertner felt that the idea was one Youth Aliyah might consider when the new policy, to which they are tending through force of circumstances, becomes a matter of fact.

After the age of seventeen or thereabouts, when the Youth Aliyah training ends, the Hebrew language, history and a general knowledge of the country can be assumed to have been acquired. When the age of eighteen is reached, National Service begins for both boy and girl; this, again, is not a purely military training, but a large part of the time is spent in agricultural work and possibly at a frontier post. Many of the new settlements are situated along the frontier so that the two vital problems of defence and agricultural production can be linked. It is to these new settlements that young people are encouraged to go, and it is to their advantage if they decide to do so, for building land and housing is available for them there very much more quickly than nearer the large towns.

In the new town of Beersheba which has grown from 2,000 to 20,000 inhabitants in the last few years, many oriental families have settled. On its outskirts, there is an agricultural Day School where the adolescent can receive a general and a farming training while living with his family. It is hoped to repeat this experiment, and possibly extend it over the country, as one of the new steps towards meeting the needs of a changing population.

Youth Aliyah, with its wide experience, is taking stock of the situation and reconsidering its policy in the light of new developments. It may well be that an epoch of youth movements which rebelled against the family has passed away, and that the new immigrants of Israel bring with them values and cultural assets which will only slowly become acceptable to the earlier European settlers. A period of discomfort, even of suffering, may result, but in the long run it may be an enrichment to the civilization of this ancient land to have to look back to its earlier cultural heritage. Nor will it be alone with this problem. Surely all over the world, the proud conception of Western progress is being challenged by populations emerging from their sense of inferiority vis-à-vis Western man. It is a time when teachers are being taught many a useful lesson, if only they will become diligent pupils, and gather up courage to start all over again.

Advances in Understanding Education, a copy of which is inserted in this issue of *The New Era*, may be obtained from Miss M. A. Payne, Rawfell, Great Langdale, Westmorland. On heavier paper and with a cover these will cost 1/- post free.—ED.

THE CHILDREN SHOOT IT OUT

Kathleen Hadley, now teaching at Debden, Essex

WHEN a class or a group of children are going to make a film, the whole job is conceived and approached from the beginning as a communal effort. The usual practice is for a story to be suggested during a discussion, or for the plot to be chosen from a number submitted for judgment by the children. The story is then scripted by an individual writer or group of writers delegated by the group to do the job because of their ability, or a good script is chosen from a number made by all members of the group. Camera work, acting and directing are then allotted to certain children, according to talent, and the important job of editing falls to volunteers or a selected group. These are about the only ones of the entire film-making unit who receive direct help and instruction from the teacher. In the vast majority of cases, a school or class film represents the children's ideas and work from beginning to end, and may be reckoned to be as truly a representative picture of their communal thoughts and expressions as any form of game which they play.

Undoubtedly the personality of the teacher, and perhaps even some of his ideas and ideals, will permeate the film, in the same way as they would influence the behaviour and play of the children.

Over a period of years, child-made films have been shown to members at the Annual General Meeting of the Society of Film Teachers, and a collection for hire has now been made at the British Film Institute. It is interesting to make an examination of the contents of these films. Out of a total of twenty-five films which I have seen, the following analysis of plot and situation

is revealing, particularly if we compare it with the alleged preferences of children in the commercial cinema.

	Secondary Modern Schools			Junior Schools	Total
	Boys	Girls	Mixed	Mixed	
Number of Schools involved	3	4	3	1	11
Number of films made	6	8	4	4	22
Films dealing with school	2	8	4	2	16
Films dealing with crime	3	2	1	1	7
Films dealing with moral issues	1	5			6
Featuring children as such	5	8	3	4	20
Involving a practical joke		1	1	1	3

One film made in a Mixed Secondary Modern School was an animated cartoon about Mr. Chad, and there are in addition three films from a Boys' Grammar School, all of which deal with school, with boys and masters playing their natural parts. One is a crime film and two are humorous, one being based on a practical joke idea.

Of the films dealing with school, some make school life the subject of the film, while others, for obvious reasons, take the school as the setting of the film. In the true school films teachers sometimes appear, and may play the part of teachers or of other adults: sometimes all the parts are played by boys and girls. Surprisingly enough, there is comparatively little preoccupation with crime, and never with crimes of violence. Instead we find the girls very much concerned with moral values and the extolling of such virtues as honesty, kindness to small children, and unselfishness. Even the practical jokers in girls' school films relent when they see that their joke is about to succeed, and the film called 'Time?' ends with their apologizing to the school captain and the prefects.

In general, adults are not very important in child-made films, even when the rôle has been

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assigned to a member of the class, unless they feature as criminals. In one of the films a schoolmaster, who was, incidentally, a very bad sort of schoolmaster, was shown to be a crook; but usually the teachers of the film school-world are rather benevolent and harmless creatures, rewarding and punishing with justice, easily hoaxed and defeated. Corporal punishment is never shown in these film schools, and indeed, in none of the films is the criminal or the miscreant shown as suffering punishment at all, the film ending after the crime has been resolved or confessed and sentence passed. In the latest film from Yeading County Primary School, the marauders, identified by a shot of a gipsy caravan which was taken separately by the master, and added after the film had been practically completed to point their identity, were allowed to escape because the children making the film could not decide whether they should be punished and how.

The comedy in child-made films usually takes the form of a successful practical joke. The entire plot of 'The Picnic' deals with the preparation and carrying out of such a joke, and the film ends

with a shot of the girls rolling about laughing as they watch the boys who had stolen the food for the picnic—paint 'sandwiches' and lemonade made with dye—not enjoying their loot.

The general impression created by all the films, even those made in King's College, Wimbledon, where the leaders of the film unit are often very intelligent young men of up to twenty, is one of freshness, simplicity and a direct approach to both the moral issues and their expression in film form. The story is told in a straightforward manner, without the use of 'flashback' or a narrative in the sound track. Little that is startlingly new is added to our knowledge of children by these films. Indeed, one of the most interesting things about them is the way in which a new medium is used to express the same sorts of moral tales and crude humour which children have told in other ways for so long. The innovation is that they are an essentially communal piece of work, in which a team of boys and girls, working together, manage to produce a finished and unified piece of work which is the epitome of child thought and expression.

FILMS SEEN

TITLE	SCHOOL	MAIN THEME	TITLE	SCHOOL	MAIN THEME
Treble Chance	Sec. Mod. Boys	Boy forgets to post big brother's foot-ball coupon	To the Rescue	Junior Mixed	Marauders driven off by children playing Cowboys and Indians
The Haunted Room	Sec. Mod. Boys	Crime; Adults	I Spy	Sec. Mod. Girls (Residential school)	Spy caught by school girls
Written Evidence	Sec. Mod. Boys	Crime; Schoolmaster crook	A Kind Action	Sec. Mod. Girls	Virtue rewarded
Race against Crime	Sec. Mod. Boys (Made on residential film course)	Crime: Crook caught by boys; sub-plot of unsuccessful jealousy	Boomerang	Sec. Mod. Girls	A cheat exposed and expelled
How's That?	Sec. Mod. Boys	Cricket in school	The Finding of a Wallet	Sec. Mod. Girls	A guilty conscience eased by confession
Buried Treasure	Sec. Mod. Boys	Discovery of treasure enables boys to buy bicycles	Guilty Conscience	Sec. Mod. Girls	A guilty conscience eased by confession
Brought to Justice	Sec. Mod. Mixed	Criminals caught by children	On the run	Sec. Mod. Girls	Crooks caught by school girls
Experiment	Sec. Mod. Mixed	Animated cartoon	Jealousy	Sec. Mod. Girls	The best girl wins in spite of her rival's machinations
Lost, Stolen, or—	Sec. Mod. Mixed	The 'odd' boy gets the reward for finding the lost dog	Time ?	Sec. Mod. Girls	Hoaxers own up when their imitation time bomb is treated seriously
Hidden Treasure	Sec. Mod. Mixed	Two naughty boys trick their school fellows	Time on the Run	Boys' Grammar	Thieves caught by school boys
The Picnic	Primary Mixed	The girls play a trick on the boys	The Vanishing Trick	Boys' Grammar	Boy learns to vanish and tricks masters and prefects
Caught Napping	Junior Mixed	A truant is discovered	Down to Earth	Boys' Grammar	Mysterious new boy solves a school's problems
The Mysterious Parcel	Junior Mixed	Parcel of arithmetic books stolen and recovered by children			

CHILDREN'S THEATRE

J. Géral

Do you think it as natural and necessary for children to have their own theatre as it has long been for them to have their own literature ?' This was the first question in an enquiry set up ten years ago by the French magazine *Travail et Culture*. Monsieur Léon Chancerel replied: 'Is it not a disgrace to our country that the question still needs to be asked ?' If most of our teachers no longer have any doubts about the matter, it still remains true that, in spite of the courage of certain groups of people who have been engaged in the absorbing and difficult task of devising a theatre which is really adapted to the needs of children, Belgium has not yet witnessed a systematic effort in this field based upon the values of education and on those of the theatre.

Such experiments as have been made have come up against the indifference and even the mistrust of the majority of teachers, but the worst impediments have been financial, and these have not always been solved by sufficiently generous

support from public funds. The productions themselves have often been governed by too narrowly didactic aims, or, what is worse, they have been influenced by the commercial considerations of producers who have not recognized their responsibilities, and by the fact that the actors have been ill-trained in any understanding of teaching and who have therefore more than once aroused protests from educationists.

The aims of *La Jeune Equipe* are as follows:

- To offer primary and nursery schools plays which are adapted to the needs of the various ages of their pupils.
- To get really competent advice on these plays, both as regards their teaching value and their value as theatre.
- To put them on in places that are easily accessible to the schools, so avoiding the cost and risk of moving large numbers of children to a central theatre.
- To introduce their plays as part of the normal activities of a school, so establishing a really

engaging centre of interest which can be taken up in many school subjects.

To form a company of young professional actors, specialized in achieving the aims outlined above.

To arouse the interest of writers and creative artists in serving a children's theatre.

To review and assess the results of attempts at a children's theatre already been made in our country.

Finally, to establish relations and institute exchanges with children's theatres existing in other countries.

From this very full programme I propose to comment on those items which *La Jeune Equipe* has been able to realize up to date. In the course of a few months, thanks to the eagerness of young actors who want to become members of a real working group, several marionette shows have already been put on. These have been shown to children in day nurseries and pleased the children as well as gaining the approval of the teachers who accompanied them. An evening of comedy was then put on, a programme consisting of two farces. These had to be chosen with particular care since they had to be played before children ranging from the ages of six to twelve. They chose first, the adaptation of a mediaeval farce and then a work by a young Belgian author which had been specially written for children. *Décor* and costumes were designed and made by the pupils of the course in theatre techniques at *L'Ecole Supérieure des Arts Décoratifs*—run by Monsieur Herman Closson. The first performance was in the Music Room at the *Palais des Beaux-Arts*, before an audience of several hundred children and of many people from the educational world. It was both a success and a fruitful experiment.

We have already noted that if we are to attract an ever growing audience of children we must achieve continuity in our work and put on our performances in communal halls that are accessible to the most outlying schools. Both tickets and travelling costs have to be kept as low as possible for the children. Head teachers must be given a certain number of free seats for the use of very poor children and members of large families.

In spite of our limited means, our experiment and our principles found wide approval. Each performance was followed a few days later by a

meeting of all the teachers who had been present. Delegates from the Ministry of Education and from local authorities come to these meetings along with the young actors themselves. This always results in fruitful discussions based on the replies that the teachers have sent in to a questionnaire given to them on the day of the performance, as much as on comments that the children themselves have made. Each meeting results in improvements in the performance itself. Our effort to decentralize the performances have been greatly assisted by the New Education Fellowship whose increasing prestige in Belgium has been a real support to us.

We do not expect to achieve all the essential points in the programme in the very near future, since finance is still a formidable obstacle. All the same it is evident that if our performances are to achieve our exact aim they must be addressed closely to the exact stage the children have reached in their primary education. To cater in a single showing for children between six and twelve is a thankless task which does not allow one to consider deeply the needs of each age. The authorities are quite well aware of this problem and have effective ways of solving it, but the continually diminishing budgets of the services on which we depend make us fear prolonged delays.

We are hoping not to have to repeat the words used by Mr. George Devine, the Director of the Young Vic in London, in an article published by the International Institute of the Theatre. Speaking of the need for specialized groups of players for the children's theatre, he said: 'Actually the need exists but the groups do not exist. They have not disappeared through any fault of their own but simply because they fell between two budgets.'

When we see how far we have gone we have sound reasons for hope, and that is why I do not wish to miss this opportunity of paying tribute to one of the pioneers of the children's theatre in Belgium, Monsieur Etienne Vandersanden, who will allow me to quote here from Goethe's 'The Year's of Apprenticeship for Wilhelm Meister': 'I dressed marionettes for them; I prepared a comedy for them. We must now have comedies and marionettes for children.'

[Kindly sent in for publication by the Secretary of the French Speaking Belgian Section.]

NEWS AND NOTES

ITALIAN SECTION

A meeting of the various representatives of local groups of the Italian Section of the N.E.F. was held in Florence on the 31st October. The meeting was presided over by Professor Ernesto Codignola. Raffaele Laporta, Secretary; Lamberto Borghi, Palermo; Carmela Mungo, Rome; Marco Cecere, Bisaccia (Avellino); Maria Corda, Codignola. Raffaele Laporta, Secretary; Lam-De Bartolomeis, Florence; Vezio Melegari, Genoa; and Aldo Visalberghi from Aosta, attended the meeting. Laporta gave a brief survey of the general situation of the Italian Section, and expressed the opinion, about which he had already informed some of the members, that the activity of the N.E.F. in Italy needed to be more clearly defined. Its close alliance with other groups of progressive educators, such as the C.T.S. (Co-operative for the Typography at School) and the C.E.M.E.A. (Centres d'Entraînement aux Méthodes de l'éducation active), risked to make it a merely co-operating body in projects carried on by other educational associations, unless its tasks were pointed out with precision. Laporta's opinion was supported by most of the members. A Committee was appointed of the following people who are to be nationally responsible for some special branches of activity for the coming year:

- (1) Surveys on social and educational conditions in Italy (Borghi)
- (2) Studies on adolescence and adolescents in Italy (De Bartolomeis)
- (3) Techniques of experimental education (Visalberghi)
- (4) Group work in Italian Schools (Mungo for Elementary Schools; Cecere for Middle Schools; Corda for Secondary Schools)
- (5) Relations with other countries (Codignola, Borghi, Visalberghi)

Renato Coèn was appointed secretary of the new Committee.

All these representatives of Italian groups of the N.E.F. attended the National Conference of the Co-operative for the Typography at School that was held at Signa (near Florence) from November 1st-4th.

In Sicily, the Palermo Group is still working on the survey of the educational situation in Partinico, a town of 25,000 people, close to Palermo, the centre of the triangle Montelepre, Partinico and Trappeto where poverty and delinquency are rampant. The findings of the social survey of some sections of Partinico have recently been made available to the Italian public in a book entitled *Quanti altri s'impiccheranno; Quanti*

altri impazziranno; Quanti altri vivranno disgraziati a Partinico? (How many more will hang themselves; How many more will go mad; How many more will meet a violent death at Partinico?) The book was published last August. Its main contributor was Danilo Dolci who is now working at Partinico, while still supervizing the 'Borgo di Dio' in Trappeto. The educational survey was started in the poverty-ridden section of Partinico called 'Spine Sante' where 330 families have their homes, most of which lack windows, running water, a bathroom and all other amenities. Out of ninety-eight children between six and fourteen, who have been visited until now, twenty-eight had never gone to school, in the 'Spine Sante' Section of Partinico. This Section is characterized by the great number of people affected by mental diseases. Another section of the town—called 'Quartiere della Madonna'—is the centre of delinquency. It is made out of about 900 families, half of which are in very poor conditions. The survey of the educational and school situation of this group was started on November 11th by Danilo Dolci, Vittorio D'Alessandro, Lamberto Borghi, and Miss Morante of the Palermo group. An account of this survey will probably be presented to the members of the Palermo group on November 29th, at the first meeting of the new academic year.

The survey of the educational situation in Ivrea (Torino) made last year by Lamberto Borghi was recently published in book form: *Le scuole e l'educazione a Ivrea (Gruppo tecnico per il coordinamento urbanistico del Canavese, Ivrea, 1954)*.

LAMBERTO BORGHİ

NEW SOUTH WALES

In this last half-year of 1954 the New South Wales Section's work has developed and intensified in two gratifying ways: first, there has been a greater diversity of projects in which an increasing number of our members have taken part; and second, following on the first, we have made a continual impact on the general community by drawing into our projects many of the general public, especially parents, teachers and educational administrators; also by getting good publicity in press and radio.

Among important projects begun or completed:

(a) Expression of N.E.F. opinion to the Education Department's Committee of Enquiry into Secondary Education in N.S.W. (this enquiry is not yet completed). We advocated a sound core curriculum designed both for those leaving at fifteen and those continuing after fifteen; we

asked for district comprehensive high schools; co-education in all high schools; and further enquiry into teacher training in the direction of development of teacher personality and better understanding of the personality needs of children.

(b) Participation in the first 'Education Week' sponsored by the N.S.W. Education Department, 16-23 August, when all schools were opened to parents and other visitors, and many N.E.F. speakers addressed gatherings of parents and teachers on such topics as parent-teacher co-operation, and the rôle of parents and teachers in helping the child to grow towards maturity and responsible and well-balanced citizenship in a democracy. The N.E.F. provided the speakers in a Public Symposium on 'Is There a Need for Parent Education?'

(c) A second 1954 Parents' Discussion Group on 'Towards Happier Families'. This proved a happy and most rewarding project. Twenty mothers met each Wednesday morning for twelve weeks in the bright studio of Miss Rosemary Benjamin's Theatre for Children. There were various 'guest leaders' on topics like *Parent and Young Child*; *Aspects of Discipline*; *Crises in the Life of the Young Child*; *Sex Education*; *Adolescence and Preparation for Marriage*. There was a 'continuity mother' for the group; there was always morning tea; there was a library; there were no 'lectures' but much good discussion. Tensions began to ease, new attitudes to develop, all were friendly and co-operative and eager to discuss. Typical of the replies to a questionnaire which asked for the mothers' reactions to the group work were these comments: 'I got from the group an even exchange of experiences with other mothers, also advice and often reassurance from experts in the field of child psychology. I found that most of the things that worry me are problems met by most parents, and I enjoyed every minute of the discussions. May we have more and similar groups, please?'

(d) Two new Summer Schools in Creative Activities: the value and appeal of these schools (which will follow the old tradition of Chichester and others) is shown by the rush to book at the forthcoming Armidale Adult Summer School; all 120 places were booked out months before the opening date—January 3-13, 1955. Groups are to work in sculpture, painting, drama, creative writing, and discussion on literature and life. A second school will follow—the Youth Arts Camp of N.E.F. of N.S.W.—where teenagers of fifteen-twenty years will continue the kind of group work they do each fortnight at the Phillip Park Children's Library in Sydney.

(e) Monthly luncheon meetings have continued successfully all through this year, attracting quite a wide circle of people who come thus into

touch with N.E.F. work and ideas in a friendly informal way. Each luncheon presents a speaker and discussion on such topics as: *Marriage Guidance*; *Education Through Art*; *Filling the Gap between School and Adult Life*; *Prison Reform*.

(f) A director of the Sub-Normal Children's Welfare Association, Mr. Don Burling, said 'Miss Mary Lamond, teacher at the Crowle Home for Sub-Normal Children at Ryde, has set a new standard in the teaching of the mentally retarded. She concentrates on their emotional qualities and has had outstanding success. Children, who previously sought hide-outs because of their condition, no longer brood in loneliness. Like normal children, they have found happiness in the company of others, and association has stimulated their desire to learn.'

(g) The return home to Sydney of Honorary President Donald McLean has been a major important event in N.S.W. Section. Mr. McLean has obviously learnt and contributed much in his visits to Britain, U.S.A. and South Africa. His understanding and faith in N.E.F. ideas and objectives is stronger than ever, and he brings with him much new inspiration and knowledge about new methods in education in many places. In his reports to our Section and his talks to teachers, parents, heads of Teachers' Colleges, he explains the value of the new techniques of group work and group discussion in child and adult education. He tries out the 'psycho-drama' and the film-strip methods of stimulating discussion. His message to Australia is summarized thus:

'I have returned from Europe with a strengthened conviction of the importance of the New Education Fellowship—I firmly believe that an organization devoted to the constant renewal of education is doing more to advance civilization than any other body. Two years ago I would have had difficulty in defining exactly the fundamental beliefs of New Educationalists, but in Europe I realized that our philosophy has evolved to the point where we can say: "We believe in a type of education which aims to develop in people what Freud calls the power to love and work". "Power to love" depends upon the mother-child relationship, which may be improved by parent education and parent-teacher co-operation. "Power to work" is developed through satisfying creative work begun in childhood, so we advocate "pupil-activity" in classrooms. There is also the need to help people to acquire the power to enjoy leisure. This power comes from learning the joys of creativeness, hence one of our objectives is the increased use of art, music and literature, in schools, and in the leisure time of adults.'

CLARICE MCNAMARA, *Overseas Secretary*

Book Reviews

Nature's Second Sun. Donald McLean. (Heinemann. 10/6).

This is one of those rare books on education which are at the same time authoritative, exciting yet sober, and full of instances of common-sense action in the day-to-day situations that face many parents and most teachers, whether heads or assistants. Donald McLean is one of those teachers, regrettably rare, who are not afraid of love, who regard beauty as a sign and as a source of strength, who have the courage to infuse those elements into their school, and who can convey through the printed word not only the practice but the essence of their teaching.

Let him speak for himself. 'To-day I commenced duty as headmaster of St. Erskine's, a school in that red-brick two-storey building which stands in less than an acre of asphalt playground near the docks of Woolloomooloo.' That is how he begins this diary of a school in action. He ends: 'If I could have made Ian conscious of his own worth, I might have saved him; if he had been a pupil of a Winnetka School, where parents are taught to understand, he could have grown into a fine man and his father's pride. His life was wasted because we, the adults responsible, failed him. Many lives are wasted because we forget this truth:

"I tell thee Love is Nature's second sun

Causing a spring of virtues where he shines".'

The book that lies between these passages tells of real people in a real school situated in a noisy, crowded, and ill-favoured urban district. It recounts success, and it does not hide failure; it shows the author's deep-rooted concern with the contemporary rôle of teachers and with what many of us believe should be the contemporary objective of education; it answers with vigour and by example the charges usually levelled against new education; it carries the attack into the traditionalist's camp.

One of the first problems tackled by the Head of St Erskine's was that of corporal punishment. Soon he persuaded his teachers to substitute card-indexing for caning. By recording every significant act on the part of boys deemed deserving of caning it was possible to build up evidence from which the emotional urges driving the child into eccentric behaviour could be deduced. Alleviation was thus often made possible.

By introducing project work he changed the objective of classroom practice from that of imparting in-

formation to that of developing integrated personality. By simultaneously insisting on a high standard in the basic skills, he induced in the pupils a sense of pride in their work. By encouraging the teachers to widen their horizons, he enriched their lives, their teaching, and the school. By enlisting the help of prominent citizens, he aroused interest in individual children with special needs; by writing to country newspapers, he persuaded farmers to offer unpaid holiday work to his urban schoolboys; by winning the confidence of the police and magistrates, he secured imaginative treatment for his young delinquents. By drawing parents into close co-operation with the school, he found a happy issue out of situations fraught sometimes with difficulty and unpleasantness, sometimes with danger and near tragedy. But when parents shut their eyes to the dangers, as in the case of Ian quoted above, the school was unable to save the boy from self-destruction.

St. Erskine's is a school with many children from foreign lands. Their assimilation is as important for the school as is the assimilation of their parents by the nation. In the school playground there is a large map of the world. On it are marked the former homes of those who have come from

overseas, and each newcomer is given an opportunity of telling the school something about his native land. Parents too are made to feel at home in their new surroundings. Take for example the following passage. The Head is talking to Kai Loon, father of Keith; both father and son have been in trouble. "'Keith is the heir to the culture of China and ancient Australia; probably he's the luckiest boy in this school, but you'll have to help him to exploit his luck by showing him how rich his life will be if he takes the best from all three worlds.'" Kai Loon looked at me with astonished eyes. "You're the first man who ever said I was lucky to be a half-caste Chinese; but by cripes you're right".'

Nature's Second Sun is a teacher's log. It is based on case histories; on the author's own experience; on his practice—which was neither hard nor soft, but which was tough. This is a book to read and to read again—not to use as an educational blue-print, for as Professor J. A. Lauwerys rightly warns readers in his foreword, the purpose of the book is to 'highlight promising practices and to communicate knowledge'—but to learn from and to draw inspiration from a modest man who is an exceptionally gifted teacher.

J. B. Annand

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PITMAN

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The Teaching of Nature Study.

Thistle Y. Harris (Australian Council for Educational Research).

This book is more than 'a practical guide for teachers in primary schools' written by a lecturer in Biology at the Teachers' College, Sydney, and embodying the results of a research project on Nature Study teaching in primary schools in New South Wales. It is a challenge to primary school teachers everywhere. As a naturalist of repute beyond the bounds of Australia, Miss Harris is able to convince us of the necessity not only for giving Nature Study an important place in the primary school curriculum, but also that there is a need for a different approach. Nature Study is a science and Miss Harris stresses the importance of the experimental method. Problem solving rather than the merely observational approach should be the aim set before the primary school child.

The investigations carried out with the aid of a grant from the Australian Council for Educational Research involved the testing of over two thousand third and fourth grade children (ages eight to ten) with the co-operation of school Heads, class teachers, and teachers in charge of small rural schools.

Actual knowledge, grasp of scientific method, and attitude were tested by means of very carefully planned questionnaires, before and after a five

month' course in Nature Study, covering a set curriculum. One of the most interesting tests was made on children before and after a four day intensive field course in camp. They were compared with a control group at home and it was discovered that the average improvement of the campers was 22.6 per cent. compared with 0.05 per cent. of the control group. These tests and their results need to be very carefully scrutinized and considered in relation to teachers' attitudes, social environment, rural and urban areas, general ability of the children and so on, and Miss Harris is careful to relate most of these factors. A more detailed report of the research work and copies of tests may be obtained from the Australian Council for Educational Research, 147 Collin Street, Melbourne.

For class teachers in English schools the chapters on camp topics, field work in schools, conducting experiments, record and programme making in Nature Study are full of most stimulating suggestions. I, myself, can foresee danger if too much testing were adopted, and would query some of the tests suggested. Miss Harris says they are common test forms 'such as completion tests, recognition of outline sketches, filling in of tables, questions based on recognition of outline sketches, check lists, matching forms and filling in the correct word in blank spaces'. True, she has a footnote com-

menting that ingenious teachers might use other tests, and perhaps I am perversely anti-test, especially in the form it takes in our secondary selection examinations; but after careful reading of the author's questionnaires I feel a little uneasy, especially about those set to test knowledge. In stressing the aim of Nature Study to be training in scientific method, I wonder if Miss Harris is not a little too preoccupied with what she regards as the 'elimination of irrelevancies'. I cannot think of anything which could be irrelevant to an eight to ten year old discoverer.

My only criticism of this admirable book is that in some cases the work seems too teacher directed, academic and limited. Nature Study may include much more than local environmental studies and the young naturalist may quite profitably wander away from the beans and insects to pursue what to him is a relevant wonder.

Miss Harris follows Piaget quite closely in her interpretations of the child's conceptions of the world, and she produces evidence that the eight to ten-year-old group are in a transitional stage of thinking. Nature Study, she thinks, 'taken at the right pace will serve to help children to arrive naturally but more speedily at that understanding of environment which is the aim of education'. I would prefer to say *one* of the aims—there are others, equally exciting. M. E. Mitchell.

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THE NEW ERA

in home and school



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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

FROM STUDENT TO TEACHER STATUS

Adam Curle, Professor of Education, University of the South West, Exeter

I MUST preface this statement by a note of apology and explanation. In describing what is done in our department and why, I am not suggesting that others do not do likewise and do it better; or do other things with more effective results; or that our practice and our theory always coincide. I am simply saying what we think and what we try to do. If this causes criticism, so much the better, for self-satisfaction spells death to imagination and effort.

The burden of my article in the January number of *The New Era* was that it is helpful to think of human behaviour in terms of communications, and that the degree of relatedness within the individual's personality was related to the extent to which he could establish harmonious and reciprocal relations with others. It is now my purpose to show how we have tried to apply these principles in the small sphere of the larger educational world with which my colleagues and I are associated, namely teacher training in a university department of education. In this discussion, we may take for granted that students require to know the techniques of putting over a subject, the elements of the history, theory, organization and administration of education, the relevant aspects of educational psychology and so on. What I shall be primarily concerned with, is the framework within which this instruction takes place.

Briefly put, the arguments we have followed are roughly these:

A young person's value as a teacher depends more upon his or her qualities as a human being than if he were embarking on many other professional careers. That is, it depends largely upon his ability to establish good communications with children, colleagues and parents. We must frankly acknowledge that we cannot properly define the complex combinations of qualities which make for excellence, but we can perhaps put our fingers on some of the stresses which create strains and anxieties that often adversely affect good communications.

We must be equally frank in admitting that there is little we can do about many of these. Our students are with us for only eight months (four months of their training period being of course, taken up by the summer vacation). We must therefore concentrate mainly on reducing those stresses which arise out of the character of our association with the students, namely their transition from the rôle of student to that of teacher.

These stresses can be considered in the light of certain more general features of our society. The individual's movement through life is punctuated by a number of transition points, at which his rôle and status change. Some of these points are physiological, as the body matures and ages, but most of them are social. A person's position, rights, obligations, expectations, zones of authority and of obedience, his degrees of freedom and of constraint, his needs for himself and for others, depend upon the social rôle or collection of social rôles which he has assumed. Of two boys aged seventeen, one may be a wage earner, the other at school, and the difference between their social rôles will divide them more effectively than their age and physical development will bring them together. These transition points are not always easily crossed and it is a feature of our society that they are often either too abrupt, or too blurred, but in any case too little attended to.

In primitive society these things are better understood. For example, the elaborate initiation ceremonies to which boys and girls are often subjected are not mere mumbo jumbo. There may be much apparently meaningless and unpleasant ritual, but the whole point is to give emotional cogency to the change in status of the young man or woman. He starts as a child, with a child's name, place in society and obligations. He ends up a man, with responsibility for all that manhood entails. The shock of transition is mediated and validated by the whole panoply of symbolism. Of course there are certain

comparable things in our life. The marriage ceremony, for example, quite apart from its spiritual content, gives added significance to new duties, responsibilities and rights, implanting their solemnity in the minds of the nuptial pair. It symbolizes the creation of a new social unit and the separation of the young bride and groom from their parental homes. But there are relatively few of such occasions. In my own lifetime, for example, the cogency of the twenty-first birthday celebration has very largely been lost. The transition from the status of student to that of teacher also marks a definite change in the direction of the individual's life.

From the age of five up to twenty-one or -two (although of course this pattern is somewhat broken for men by National Service), our young people are being taught. They grow from virtual infancy to maturity, in some cases being married and parents, but they are still at the receiving end. They are the Taught. They learn different things and in different ways, from their ABC to the dizzy heights of modern physics, but the whole time there is someone above them, instructing and informing them. Then suddenly, the process is reversed. From being the Taught, they are the Teachers. At one fell swoop they become the authority under which they have laboured for the last seventeen or eighteen years.

It does not quite work like that of course, because most of them first train specifically for the job. But is this training simply a continuation of the same old social rôle of student? Are they still in the status of the Taught, a status symbolized by the sinister rituals enacted in the examination halls? If so, I could suggest that teacher training loses one of its principal *raisons d'être*. However effective it may be in putting over the technology of instruction it is not helping the student to change his social rôle, to make this extraordinary emotional transition from the part he has hitherto played to the one which is its exact opposite. The confusion of rôle, so well known to the psycho-analyst, may easily obscure the teacher's ability to face himself with clarity and courage. It may add to the many disturbing features which our society inevitably possesses, and cause additional and unnecessary stress. So what can be done?

Very briefly, we look upon our department as being in some senses a transitional community,

in which our students become transformed into our colleagues. We attempt to give this attitude a concrete form by adopting the following practical measures and for the following reasons.

- (1) There are no examinations. We have found that the prospect of an examination ties people emotionally to the student level, while it confines them intellectually to the study of set-books and the idiosyncrasies of examiners when they should—if properly stimulated by the staff—be embarking on a period of exploration and discovery. In this connection, the volume of reading has approximately trebled since examinations were abolished. But in any case, there is no need for examinations. Our students have already, of course, demonstrated their exam-passing capacity and we have perfectly adequate means of judging their progress by their essays, their practical work and their contribution in discussions.
- (2) We have abolished differences in the award of the certificate—there are no distinctions or firsts, only passes and (in a very few cases) failures. The reason for this is that the idea of competition places a wrong emphasis on the purpose of the course. The change was actually made on the suggestion of students who had gained distinctions, and who felt that these singled them out inappropriately from friends with whom they had worked during the last year, in the joint effort of learning how to do a valuable job.
- (3) There are no compulsory lectures. Compulsion is entirely foreign to the idea we are trying to instil, that the whole course is a co-operative effort between students and staff. Students are trusted to attend the instruction which is important to them, and although a very small proportion takes occasional advantage of this latitude, most people, when trusted, prove themselves more worthy of trust than when they are not.
- (4) Lectures, in fact, have been cut down to a bare minimum and replaced by discussion with tutors. We believe that the type of ideas put forward in lectures on, for example, educational principles, cannot be adequately dealt with on the basis of an active lecturer and a passive audience, but must be taken further in an easier atmosphere in which any hare can be followed without fear of irrelevance. These discussion periods are often almost completely unguided. They provide a psychologically

safe atmosphere, on the principle of the therapeutic group session, in which students (and for that matter, staff) find it easier than in more formal circumstances to examine difficult and emotion-laden ideas, and to discover things about themselves. Many students have testified to the fact that they gained an unexpected degree of insight into themselves, including their motives for adopting the teaching profession.

- (5) Students need not remain with the same tutor (who usually has about a dozen in his group). At certain stages in the year, they are given the opportunity, in such a way as to minimize embarrassment, of changing their tutors. In the majority of cases, however, they have come to appreciate their own group and prefer to remain with it.
- (6) We tell the students exactly what we are doing and why, telling them also that we rely on them for comments and criticisms which will enable us to give greater help to later generations of students. During the first week, there is no formal instruction. Instead, each tutor meets each group for a discussion lasting a couple of hours, so that by the end of the week all the students know all the staff. Then there is a party. This practice seems to have the effect of welding the group into a fairly effective unity relatively quickly, and of establishing the purpose of the course from the first. (In the past, many students were worried and uneasy even at the end of the first term, because, not seeing the point of all the apparently irrelevant theory and philosophy, they felt they were wasting time which should be spent in practical learning of the job. These criticisms are not now made.)
- (7) All members of the staff are always available for consultation by any student.
- (8) An afternoon a week is made available for completely non-functional artistic work—music, painting, modelling, writing, drama. This seems to provide a valuable contrast to what is done most of the time and to release faculties which some of the students did not know they possessed and this, indirectly, appears to heighten their capacity for more formal work.

I have made no mention of the effect of the controlled experience of reality to be gained from school practice, or of the social work done by some students, or of the stimulus derived from visiting lecturers who are chosen for their capacity in the necessarily rather limited field with which

we must be concerned. Nor have I explicitly mentioned the contribution of our students themselves who, far more than the staff, make the system work. The whole course, it might be said, is student orientated. We are not concerned to make people educationists with a deep knowledge of educational theory and philosophy, but to help them to become educators. It is idle to talk of academic standards for students who working to capacity to acquire, in a very short time, the knowledge of varied skills necessary to teaching. Those who are scholarly, learn in a scholarly way; those who are not, apply what they discover to their own situation, and are deflected if compelled to treat their training as directed towards examinations and detailed knowledges, rather than the actualities of teaching. We conceive that it is irrelevant for a man to know *The Republic* as a set book, but we believe he should be given the chance to know and to discuss what wise men have written, and to relate their theories to the hard facts of his own personality and experience. For those who have the desire and ability to treat education as an academic subject, there is an advanced Diploma course, but ninety per cent. of our students simply wish, and indeed have the capacity to become admirable teachers. It is to them that we owe the greatest duty and we believe that we can discharge it in two ways. Firstly, by making them proficient in the art of teaching with all that that implies, including an understanding of the wider principles, philosophical, social and psychological, that lie behind their work. Secondly, by providing a framework in which what they learn becomes real and cogent; in which they can discover something of themselves, their capacities and their difficulties; in which the strains attendant upon growing up and shifting to a new rôle in life are mitigated; in which, finally, some of the factors militating against good communications, are minimized.

We believe that the framework of theory and practice which I have set out so briefly, begins to achieve what we hope from it because, when all is said and done, it is based upon a very simple principle: respect for our students as adults and worth-while people upon whom, more than upon any other organized group, depends the well-being of future generations. The major disasters of our century have been caused by want of respect, and by the sinister corollary of pride. .

THE SPONTANEITY OF WRITTEN EXPRESSION IN THE INFANTS' SCHOOL

C. W. Stark, Headmistress of Cockshut Hill Infants' School, Birmingham

YOUNG children who are fortunately surrounded by understanding at home and at school, and whose sayings are considered with the interest that one adult accords to another, have a spontaneity of speech and expression which is so often lost later by lack of sympathy and too formal an atmosphere.

The following extempore prayer by a child 4 years 3 months old, recorded by her parents, is an example of delightful freshness.

'Thank you for all the lovely people,
The valley of the parrots,
The valley of the silly billies
All dressed so sweet
Think about the valley.
In Jesus Christ they'll all become angels in heaven.
Take care of all the children
And give them food and bacon and no eggs for breakfast.'

Yet when children first express themselves in writing, teachers are all too often content with laboured efforts such as 'I can see a man', 'This is a fish', 'The cat sat on the mat'. They think the words must all be correctly spelt, and expression never rises higher than the mundane limitations of three and four-lettered words.

What a wealth of interest and liveliness is lost. Children's first natural 'written work' is in their drawings, and how lively these often are. If we remember this, we need never lose the vivid expression that comes from them. The verbal explanations that the child gives can quickly be written under the picture by the teacher, and when he is finally able to express himself in writing, the colour and life will persist in the words he uses.

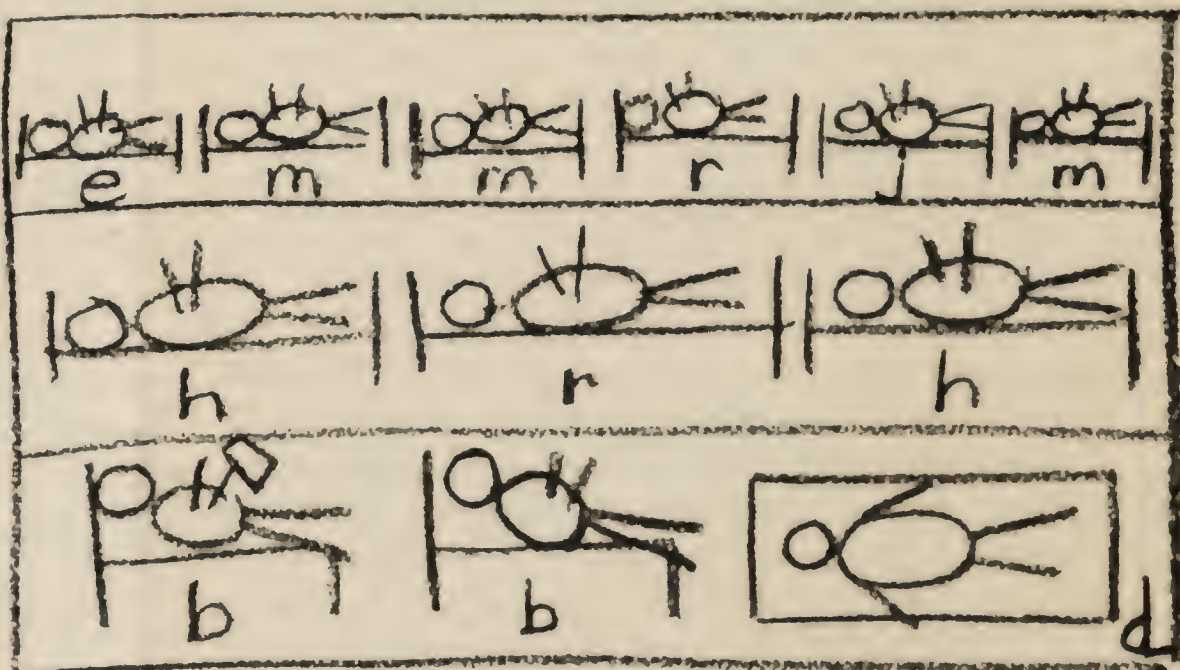
There is no need to restrict the children to using words that they can spell correctly. For instance a child of six wrote: 'This aeroplane has a . . .' then followed a seemingly undecipherable word which turned out to be 'retractable under-carriage'. If they want to use such words, why stop them?

Here are sentences given by some *retarded* children of 6½ about their pictures one week: 'My little man has come in wringing wet.' 'The

planes are shooting the whole earth up.' 'The flowers are waffling about on the hill in the breeze.'

Then there is Harry's masterpiece, a verbal description of a somewhat riotous party. He was also a backward 6½-year-old and had made some attempt at writing about his picture himself, but his teacher was unable to read it and this was his recorded explanation, together with his picture.

'Uncle Billy and Billy-the-Race-Course, Ronnie and Little Harry came to the party. We had beer and tenpenny-mixed, and we drank all the beer empty. I had a bottle of beer and hid it. It was kali. All we had to eat was tomatoes. Uncle Billy played the accordion. They all stayed at our house. In one room was Auntie Edna, Auntie Minnie, Marie, Rene, Jessie and Mother. Ronnie and Little Harry and me was in another. Uncle Billy and Billy-the-Race-Course sat on chairs all night and my Dad was on the hearth rug. They woke us all up doing exercises. They all went home yesterday after the fun.'



What an insight we gain into Harry's character and background from this.

It is not possible with large classes to write such long scripts under each child's picture regularly, but frequently writing a short sentence soon bears fruit and the children will begin to make their own attempts, some as early as 5½ and even really backward children by the age of 7.

If individual books are kept for this, children will read and re-read what has been written for them, and often copy words they need from a previous page, soon starting to write their own sentences without waiting for the teacher.

The lesson can be planned so that there are alternative occupations for the children to be engaged in while they are waiting for the teacher to come to them. They use coloured pencils, or 'Finart' crayons, and first draw their picture. The teacher then sees someone who has made a quick start and asks what it is all about, writing the child's own words on the page at the side. The child can then copy the sentence underneath. The variety of colourful pictures and fluent sentences are a joy and delight. The most backward children may only give a phrase at first, but this will soon develop. Instead of the stilted 'I can see a ship' of olden days, we get 'Hi, says the sailor, wait for me.'

When children attempt to write on their own, they frequently ask for help in spelling a word. Small individual word-books can be kept for the purpose, the teacher writing in the required word for the child to copy. They should be encouraged to make their own attempts at words which follow the phonetics they have learned, but the teacher will help with words beyond their ability as she has time.

This brings an amusing incident to mind. Margot, a 7-year-old, wanted to know how to spell some peculiarly pronounced name out of a play they were doing at the time. The Headmistress happened to be taking the class, so sent the child to the staff-room to ask her teacher. Later on she asked for another peculiar name. The Head had a shot this time and said, 'I'm not sure, but I think it is this,' writing the word in the word-book. Margot's eyes opened wide and the next time the Head passed by she put her hand up again. When the Headmistress bent down to assist, Margot put an arm round her neck and confidentially whispered in her ear, 'It must be awful to be a Headmistress and not be able to spell!'

If we continue to allow the children to draw their picture first, it not only helps them to think what to write about, but gives the teacher a clue to what the child is trying to say and, beyond that, an insight into the child's thoughts.

Margaret had been to a wedding and drew a picture the next week. It had a beautiful bride in the centre and the bridesmaid was beside her. Both the dresses were drawn in detail and lovely bouquets were held. Last of all, as an after-thought, up in the corner of the picture she drew the bridegroom. Her written expression was all

about the bride and bridesmaid and the flowers, taking up seven or eight lines, and just as a postscript she added 'There was a man at the wedding.'

So often when done in this way it is the child's real feeling that comes out, and is not that the essence of expression?

Jasmin, aged 6½ years, drew a picture of people on the beach, the sea, a fish and a sailing boat, then wrote:

'Wen My Mover and My Farver tacce Me to The seaside We awways splash The Water and We awways like it but Wen are holarday as gone away We are so sad but neccet year The same Fing happens as Well but I donit cear at all so gust say good-by sea-side and Fanck you very Much good by good by.'

Jasmin is a very shy child, but her written expression is quite uninhibited and her joy, sadness and philosophy come over well.

It is just as much a mistake to insist on correct spelling and good writing as to expect proper punctuation. It can be mentioned when particularly helpful in making the meaning more clear, and used and pointed out when a sentence is given the child to copy, but the child in getting down his ideas needs to be unhampered by too many restrictions at first, and provided spelling and writing improve, and the beginnings of punctuation appear when the child is seven, that is surely enough.

'Variety is the spice of life' and many are the contrasts we get even in a streamed group of 7-year-olds.

Paul tells us 'How to make a Humpty Dumty. Get a egg shell make some cardbord hans make some cardbord legs and stick them on. Do a patan roond the migul.'

John H. amazes us by his very adult 'Now Helicopters fly over ancient Rome. Where once chariots drove among the ruins of Rome Two new flying machines transport themselves'—an almost exact reproduction of a commentary he had heard during a newsreel at the pictures, which must have impressed his imagination for him to have remembered it.

Vicky tries her hand at poetry:

'I have a little pussy cat
He's only three weeks old
already he is very fat
and wriggly to hold
I have a big brother
His name is Anthony
me and my brother play with my mother
and that makes Three.'

Mary makes us feel the variety of experiences

she had on holiday—the misery of being a poor traveller, the interest of the sights to be seen, the vagaries of the English climate, the panic that comes with wondering whether we are on the right train, the kindly care of a porter, and last of all the really natural and abiding joy of it all being the treasures she had gathered.

'Last Saturday I went in a motor coach and I was road sick we had to stop the driver ten times for me to get out. the second time I was sick. we were on the way from Newquay to Penzance and Lands End and Saint Ives. it is a quaint little place. at Lands end it was cold and at St Ives you could have gone about in a sun suit. I went on the very ege of England and I have seen Ann Todds house it has lots of chimney pots and coming home I had seen the suspension bridge it is near Bristol. Nanny got in the train and they hooked the engine on and I thort the train was going go and I went as white as a goast I thought Nanny would get taken home I made her get out of the train quick and a porter who had seen Nanny at Birmingham asked Nanny how she felt. Nanny was moving her deck chair and her two fingers went flat in the deck chair and broke the flesh right off it was flat wen we got it out of the chair and I have got a wooden box and I filled it with soil and put a lot of shells in it.'

John N. was fond of writing long and highly imaginative stories but his adventures into the realms of science and geography were even more interesting. About the same time as he drew a map of the world and explained about various countries, this astonishing treatise appeared:
The Moon and the sun.



'as all of you now sientist have been trying to get to the moon. well I am not I am trying to see the sun and it is 93000000 miles away and it gives out Degreys of heat. now the sun is bigger than the world it must be trficley big for the world takes one year to go round it that is why it is so hot these Days' (1953!) 'but in the winter it takes one year to go away from the sun. Part 2 the moon I don't now much about the moon but I think it is 150000 Feet high. the end.'

Peter nearly always wrote using direct speech, later using inverted commas, for example:

'This queer sea is the all colour sea. Look at the birds! Inland the train is puffing on, Puff! Puff! Whhhhl!, the boats are in the harbour and one man is rowing it.'

A few days later he described a conjurer:

'The peaple are looking at the conjirer. So when it had finished, they went home saying I wish I could do that.

All that day evrybody was rubing there hare tring to make a tube follow there finger.'

or this:

'Once upon a time there lived a snaick and his name was wiggley woww. he scerd everybody with his poisonous fangs wow! they would say Help! and they ran away. One day an old man came past and said Celeweelewuzzy-woo! amegety Wowws fangs disaperd I am sorry! he said Boo! Hoo! he criad.'

He came to a point one day when he felt drawing a picture and writing about it was not what he wanted, so asked if he could write an 'essay'. He would add no illustration and began:

'MY ESSY I went to Aston Hall with Daddy. rwrite up at the top there was the Servants quarters and there was in the kitchen there was a refrigerator and an iron and a cookery book open at a page and that page was open at how to make a wedding cake.'

Music played, with the children quietly listening, brings many different results when they are asked to write what it made them think about.

Barcarolle ('Tales of Hoffman') was given many interpretations.

Pat with an unusually good ear, and able to play the piano, wrote:

'The little baby is in the cradle crying and her Mother is singing to her but the baby takes no notice of her Mother singing so her Mother sings louder to make the baby hear her. But the baby crys louder than ever so her Mother stops singing and goes away.'

Jennifer's was quite different.

'The bells of Scotland are ringing because the King and Qeen Have come To The little Toune where they live. The peaple are cheering and cheering. The croud was terrific The ladis were waving Ther hacis and the men shouting harryay.'

Peter also seemed to hear applause in the crescendo and diminuendo. He wrote:

'Once upon a time there was a little girl on a stage and she was dancing and I saw that the curtains were brown and the floor was purple and the ladies dres was all coles red green yellow blue purple orange and the last coler was Brown and all the ordence were claping there hands and then she did another one and when she had finished the gave her another clap.'

Bruce seemed to feel the contrast too, but to him 'On a hill therer werer three fairies and a big big giant with a club and he carried it on his sholder.'

Our children leave us before they turn eight but in the last few weeks some begin to grow very fluent in their written expression. The cursive loopless writing they have always used is a mastered skill by now and therefore their thoughts

flow more freely. Pages are filled in one period and they will sometimes continue with the same theme in a following one.

Maureen was full of the subject of Florence Nightingale having seen something to set her mind questioning and investigating. It is unusual for a child of seven to be impressed to this extent, but she acquired all the information herself, even if some of it was incorrect.

'Last Thursday Nurse Nightingale died on her birthday. One of the Nurses lay two lovely wreaths at the bottom of her statue. They had a service at ST Pauls Cathedral. The nurses were all in a row. They said all kinds of Praises for Nurse Nightingale. When the service had finished the Nurses went back to the hospital. Nurse Nightingale was their leader there were some very bad people indeed in hospital. Nurse Nightingale did all her best to help the people in hospital. She was a very good nurse indeed. She was trying to help one of the people. She tried very hard indeed. But she became very ill and died all the Nurses were very sad because they liked their leader. Some of the wreaths had flowers round them and some of them have red frills round them when the children passed by her statue they looked at the lovely wreaths which one of the Nurses had laid there for the people to see when they passed by her statue. When all the people had gone home it had made some of the people very unhappy for Nurse Nightingale was a very good and kind Nurse nearly all the people went to Nurse Nightingale she made a lot of people better. The second one to Nurse Nightingale became the leader.'

Not having had much opportunity of continuing this work with older children, I have no examples to offer, but it would be very interesting

to know how children's written expression would develop if the freer approach were used.

The following rather moving piece of prose by a boy of nine was kindly supplied by an H.M.I.:

'My Father is on the broadside and Tallside. My father was a hardworking man and he had a lot of energy. He was not fat or thin. His name was ————. He was on the healthy side. His age was about thirty years when he died, he had a good reputation, he is a married man. When he was in hospital I went to see him every Sunday afternoon. I asked him how he was going on he told me He was getting a lot better. My father was very kind to me and he gave me and my cousins cigaret cards. He likes doing woodwork my Father for me and he likes a little game of cards now and then, or a game of darts. he chops the wood and saws the planks, and he is a handsome man but he is dead. He worked at the rubber works before he died.'

This at least shows that the sincerity and naturalness shown by younger children need not be lost in later years.

A comparison of free paintings done by children in the Infants' school, and those by older children, shows not so much a difference in subject and feeling, but in the more careful technique used by the older ones. Should it not therefore follow in their writings, that spelling, punctuation and calligraphy should improve without adversely affecting the quality of written expression? Surely if the same sympathetic handling of children followed throughout their school years this would be so.

CREATIVE WRITING IN A SECONDARY MODERN SCHOOL

Dymphna Porter, Senior Mistress at St. George-in-the-East Secondary Modern School, Stepney, London

FOR the last four years I have been teaching at St. George-in-the-East Secondary Modern School,¹ where in an atmosphere which is free for personal growth and social awareness to develop in harmony, we have come to realize how much the creative activities of the children enrich their personalities. We have done much experimental work to establish our present school pattern. I am not concerned here with writing about this in full, but am going to describe the work of one creative activity group.

Each afternoon we have what we call 'Elective Activities'. We have discovered that part of the

full development of a child must include opportunities for making choices from among many that appeal to him. The staff offer as many activities as they can, and, from these, in consultation with his form teacher, a child makes up his own time-table. Thus, in Creative Writing, I am fortunate in having a group of children, made up from a cross-section of the school, who are either eager to write poems, or adventurous enough to want to find out what creative writing feels like.

Because the class is elective, it is a mixed one—in age, in sex, and in ability. At first this seemed to present enormous difficulties, and I felt doubtful about achieving any results. My first group was a small one, with only twelve pupils, and so

¹ For descriptions of this school in this journal see *Standards of Social Health in the School Community*, James Hemming, June, 1948, and two articles by the Headmaster, Mr. A. A. Bloom, in September, 1949, and November, 1953.—ED.

the atmosphere was intimate. We sat around the fire at first and discovered whether any of the children had written poetry before. None of them had, nor had they any ideas to write about. I thought it would encourage them to use words if they gave an oral description before doing any writing. We looked around the classroom and all of them could give some picture of it, but their accounts were dull and unimaginative. I tried to develop a description which one girl gave me of a ray of sunlight coming through the window. I asked each child to think of a word to describe it. This is the list I received: sparkling, shining, glistening, soft, silvery, golden, glassy, gleaming, transparent, shimmering, long, jewel-like. One child then asked if they could make up a sentence with their words—this they did. They felt a little more inspired now than when they first started. They were now ready to try writing a poem. I put two suggestions on the board: 'The Sunbeam' and 'Reflections in the fire'. One or two preferred to make up their own titles, but most of them chose 'Reflections in the fire'.

For their poems I gave them books which were to be their personal books and told them that they need not show me their work unless they wished to. However, I have never found any child not wanting to show me his or her poem. When they had all finished we gathered around the fire again and I invited those who so desired to read their poems aloud. Some had only done one or two lines, others were prose descriptions and the rest were reasonable poems.

This is one of the best, written by a girl of eleven:

It reflects on the fire
To make everything look gold,
Yes!
And laden with silver,
Triangular shapes of firelight
Which soon will be dying
Forgotten by mankind
Till Dawn.
Till the cold starts to bite,
Then, yes!
It comes to life,
It comes to make brass gold,
Aye,
And laden with silver.
It forms shadows everywhere.
Gold,
Silver leaves which are jewelled.
It is happiness and sorrow,
Yes,
It is the sun and the light,
The light but not the dusk.

It may seem strange that not one child had

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tried to rhyme his or her poem. Some preferred me to read their poems aloud, the others enjoyed reading their own. Everybody was interested to see what the others had done. We seem quickly to have established a group feeling and all the children had enjoyed the lesson.

The books in which they wrote their poems were not 'best books'. There was no feeling that they had to write in their best writing, but I felt that some record, in a fair copy should be made of their work. At the suggestion of the Headmaster three copies were typed of all the poems we felt should be recorded—one copy for the author and two for school record. The children make little books with their typed copies and feel very proud to have their work typed. It is not always the best poems which are typed. Some children, who like the group and join each term, are not able to give adequate expression to their ideas, but sometimes I have their work typed to encourage them.

When a child has finished his poem it is brought to me for comment. I sometimes suggest that a word is changed, or a different arrangement of the lines made, but as far as possible the original composition is reproduced. I always correct spelling mistakes if a poem is to be typed. Hardly ever does a child ask for my help in the composition of a poem. Sometimes in a lesson a child can write nothing at all, but there is no feeling of compulsion that something must be written each week. As the lesson is a creative one the teacher should not expect the pupils to respond regularly at the same time on the same day each week. One term I had a girl of thirteen who wrote one poem only during the term but it was a sterling achievement for her and written with great feeling: this is it:

The Return

One day my grandmother died;
But it was very funny in a way
Because my granny used to say:
I will die,
I will die.
She was eighty-three and used to say to me:
Go and buy my beer
Buy my beer.
And I keep thinking of things
That will happen to me
When my grandmother has gone.
What will I do,
Where will I go?
Will I go too?
I am even frightened to go to bed
In case I don't wake up.
O mummy! what will I do?

The group varies each term, when the children are allowed to change their elective activities, but the children who started with me usually elect to continue and to develop. There are now some thirty children in my two groups. We feel it is essential to keep the number small in a creative group such as this so that an intimate and secure relationship may establish itself.

I have tried to vary the method of getting the children to write. Sometimes I make no suggestions for titles at all, but I find that the children prefer to have some guidance, even if they reject my suggestions. Marjorie Hourd¹ suggested to me that the children should be encouraged to make up their own titles, and have the blackboard filled with suggestions. This method works extremely well. At the beginning of the lesson each child is asked for a title and I write it on the board. Here is an example of suggestions I received from the children at one lesson: Black Magic, Floating Clouds, The Smoking Chimney, Day-break, Nightfall, Experience, I look and see, Light and Dark, Lighten my darkness, Time, Cool Water, Softly falling, and Walking at Night. I tried reading poems to the group as a stimulus, but the children were not ready to accept the innovation. I always have some poetry books with me for those few who enjoy reading poetry by themselves. The children have much enjoyed reading their own poems at Morning Assembly.

In the course of all these group meetings I have deliberately refrained from giving any talks to the children on the techniques of writing, but with some of the more advanced children I have found it advisable to talk individually on poetic form.

The therapeutic value of this creative work is clear. It assists the child to come to terms with his inhibitions and tensions. The consistent achievement of many members of the group has led to a marked development of personality. The poems I have chosen below are typical examples of the work of the group.

1. Fishing boy age 12.
2. A Dream boy age 11.
3. Night boy age 11.
4. Time girl age 13.
5. The Death of Summer girl age 11.

¹ Author of *Education of the Poetic Spirit and Some Emotional Aspects of Learning*, Heinemann.

Fishing

I cast my line
 Into the water and
 Hope for an unlucky
 Fish to glide along
 And take the bait
 Into his mouth.
 The hook will sink
 Into his mouth, and lo !
 His freedom shall end.
 He shall land on the
 Bank of the water,
 And his breath shall
 Slowly be drawn from
 His vague form.

A Dream

One night I had a dream
 Of a wild parrot on a beam.
 I went up to get the bird;
 He was awake and he heard.
 My hand reached to get it
 And he gave me a little nip,
 And all of a sudden it started to talk:
 —Hidden treasure, hidden treasure,
 Smart, smart, smart—
 I said, 'Where is it, pretty Polly ?'
 He said: 'Shiver me timbers.'
 And sat on holly.
 He said: 'Three miles past dead man's well
 And under the grave of my Aunt Nell ——.'
 We set out to find the treasure
 With Polly keeping me in pleasure.
 We went three miles past dead man's well
 Till we came to the grave of Polly's Aunt Nell.
 And Polly had to say a spell
 To open the grave of his Aunt Nell.
 And this is what he said:—
 'The grave of my old Aunt Nell
 Will once be opened again,
 And by the head of Aunt Nell's hair
 To find the treasure if you dare—.'
 The grave opened up at once
 And Polly went down like a dunce.
 And then a noise came up
 And then I woke up.

Night

At night the stars come out
 And the night is still.
 When you sleep the bats are flying
 And the birds are lying quietly in their nests.
 The boys and girls are lying still in their beds.
 The fire is still warm and the wireless is off;
 The lights are on in the lonely streets.
 In the country the owls are hooting.
 The leaves are rustling in the wind
 And so is the corn bending down.
 The hops are swaying backwards and forward.
 The haystack is quite still,
 Different from the swaying hops
 And the rustling leaves.

Time

Time is very precious. It is gay time
 and sometimes very sad
 because there is a time for birth
 and also a time for death.
 Death is a terrifying thought
 you are parted from the one you love
 that is the time you will never forget.
 Birth that is a very pleasant day
 you feel a pain of happiness in your heart
 because you have brought something into the
 world
 Someone dear is gone
 and Someone loving and childish has been
 brought to you.
 The old has gone and the young has come
 The time you will never forget.

The Death of Summer

It's no longer summer.
 Yes, summer is dying.
 Winter is born.
 Oh ! how the night stars shine !
 Remember how the summer breeze
 Blew so softly;
 But now we face the cold, sharp, winter wind.
 Not a breeze
 But a wind.
 It's cold and bitter.
 We can no longer wipe the sweat from our brow,
 And we clothe ourselves warmly
 And hide ourselves from the cold.
 The glistening crystals
 Hanging from the roof tops.
 Remember how the golden sunrays
 Came streaming down.
 That once-happy and bright spot is now cold,
 Icy-frozen and deserted.
 Why, why ? you ask.
 It is the death of summer and the birth of winter.

*[All the poems printed here are the children's own
 work, corrected only for spelling mistakes.]*

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FAMILIES HELP THEIR SPASTIC CHILDREN

Margot Hicklin

A FEW years back, the word 'spastic' had little meaning to the general public, and the scientific term of 'cerebral palsy' inspired the mixture of terror and awe often felt in connection with diseases that leave permanent and, as was then believed, irremediable handicaps. Children and adults with deformed limbs, awkwardly turned heads, and sudden and uncontrollable movements could be seen and were duly pitied, but to include them in the circle of one's acquaintances, would have seemed a difficult thing to do. In some respects, the change that has taken place in the public attitude to this problem can be compared to the greater hopefulness that attends the care of patients in mental hospitals, and in particular of the mentally retarded. Let it be said at once that the handicap of the spastic, though due to a damaged part of his brain, is not 'mental', and that his intelligence may be of the full range we observe in the normally endowed person: however, to his other great trials is added the one of not being able to impress his intelligence upon his environment. More of this will be said later: the parallel drawn above with mentally-handicapped people is a purely social one, and refers to the increased understanding they receive as a result of the development of better methods of treatment. These in turn, are due to the increased awareness that valuable human material is lost and much suffering caused, by leaving the care of handicapped people at the 'custodial' stage. Hospitals are places where people need to receive occasional treatment for conditions that cannot be handled in their own homes: but many hundreds of beds all over the country are occupied by patients who could, if treated at an earlier stage, have led more satisfactory lives in their own homes.

This is not the place to review the many stages this development has undergone, especially in the United States, until it is now a fact recognized by medical and educational authorities that, in the majority of cases, the condition of a spastic child can be improved, and its family immeasurably benefited, by early treatment by special methods: and even where the time has gone by when radical change would have been possible, great help can be given by making the best use

of what is left. Local Authorities have done great work in assisting special education for those children who are not educable in the normal establishments, yet there is a residue of children who are at present so handicapped in speech, hearing, movement and social adjustment that no ordinary classroom can harbour them. These present to their families a source of strain and conflict that no one can fully appreciate unless he is acquainted with such a situation. It is the daily and hourly care of a helpless being who is nevertheless strong and growing, has thoughts, feelings and a power to express them that is only rarely capable of bringing a favourable response, which is more wearing to a father and mother, more discouraging to brothers and sisters, than almost any other social burden. Yet miracles of affectionate tending and cherishing have been performed, before ever these burdens could be lightened and hope be brought into these sorely tried homes. This hope, in the final analysis, came from the parents themselves, and it is this aspect of things which makes it worth our attention as teachers, for we do so often encounter the parent who, in our opinion, is lacking in effort for his children. Here we can admire the work that parents have created among themselves, in the interests of those spastic children whom the authorities had largely considered beyond further aid.

The present observations are based on the Centre maintained by the Bristol Spastics Association, a voluntary committee of parents of spastic children who for years have been planning mutual aid and giving their money and labour to achieve the work that is now coming to fruition in the building donated by the Bristol Round Table. Here, in delightfully decorated modern surroundings, the mothers congregate with their spastic children, and the fathers—most of whom have keys to the Centre—come in their spare time to lay carpets, hang pictures, wire for electricity; even the wonderful treatment-table was made to special dimensions, as ordered by the physio-therapist, by a father in his scant spare time. The children are brought by public and voluntary transport, but soon the Centre will have its own car and driver so as to be more independent and

self-regulating in that respect also. The children come for the larger part of the day. Treatment in the purely physical sense is given as and when prescribed: daily, or twice a week, or varying in intensity. The medical officer of the Centre is the Bristol School Medical Officer who is also President of the Association and has the interest of the Centre very much at heart. The superintendent physiotherapist of the Centre, however, is employed by the parents themselves, and is beginning her work, assisted by a House Mother who is a trained nurse, and by a rota of mothers. The aim is not only a maximum effort at treatment, but to combine this with social incentive for both children and mothers, as a powerful treatment agent. Research will have to follow, for at points the new technique has been successful in practice, before its exact process has been adequately studied and understood.

In the Bristol Centre, treatment is undertaken in accordance with that carried out at the Cerebral Palsy Centre in London, under Dr. and Mrs. Bobath. Dr. Bobath, a practising psychiatrist, acts as the medical adviser, and Mrs. Bobath, under whose direction the method has developed, is training physiotherapists and also treating spastic children herself. In many hospitals and clinics, Bobath-trained physiotherapists are now specializing in the treatment of spastic children, and the demand is steadily growing. The parents in the Bristol Spastics Centre, who had experience of the remarkable results of treatment done by Mrs. Bobath herself, asked for one of her senior pupils for the responsible post at their new Centre, and felt fortunate in obtaining the services of Mrs. Mahoney, a physiotherapy teacher herself, who had worked for some time at the London Centre with Mrs. Bobath.

Before reporting some personal observations at the Bristol Centre, it might be of interest to give a very brief summary of the theory that underlies the Bobath method, as described by Dr. K. Bobath himself in the *Spastics Quarterly* of June, 1953. After stressing the need for early diagnosis and of teaching movements in the developmental sequence, i.e. in the sequence the normal child learns them in, Dr. Bobath urges that the methods used should be sufficiently elastic and adaptable to meet the needs of the individual child; on the other hand, they should be sufficiently standardized and methodical in their approach to allow

for specialists' training. 'Children with Cerebral Palsy show abnormal postures, they cannot do certain movements, and such movements as they can perform are abnormal. In the normal person the different parts of the brain interact harmoniously and direct and regulate our movements. Damage to any part of this mechanism may throw the whole out of gear, with resulting abnormalities of posture and movement During the early period of life the child with Cerebral Palsy does not appear to be very different from a normal baby . . .'

This fact was movingly illustrated by the history taken from a mother who brought for treatment at the Bristol Centre a boy of teenage who had been dressed by her all his life, could not walk without holding on, and generally had remained babyish in his ways. Breast-fed until one year of age 'because he would not keep anything else down', he was only then discovered to have abnormal movements, and severe handicaps in speech and general development. The ensuing shock to the mother was very great; several partial operations in hospital brought only small improvement, and the mother, taking upon herself the entire burden of the big and heavy lad, gave up hope of ever being aided in her task. Now treatment has begun, she finds it almost difficult to adjust to the new situation although it is so much easier in the long run. Her compensation will be found in the skills the boy will gradually acquire, and in the sharing of this interest with the other parents who come to the Centre. Social life among the parents flourishes; as much of the money is itself collected through social functions, they are in the habit of meeting regularly, and it is hoped that the actual progress of their children will not only strengthen their social bonds but make more cheerful their heroic efforts which had been attended, in the past, by the great suffering each one experienced in his and her own way. As one mother expressed it who had recently lost her child, after years of the most devoted but burdensome care: 'I used to weep because of the suffering the child endured, and now I weep because I have lost her.'

Continuing to speak of the spastic child's early development, Dr. Bobath says: ' . . . the absence of more advanced patterns of posture and movements is often more apparent than real. The parts of the brain responsible for these more

advanced patterns, are not necessarily damaged but their proper function may be prevented by the over-activity of other centres . . .'

It strikes one once again how interesting a parallel there is here between physical and mental handicaps. We know, for instance, that the well-known mechanism of over-compensation is responsible for a lot of emotional pressure in children who are not good at science or maths, and are trying to 'act up' to hide this fact. The spastic child, though unable, without help, to stop this over-activity, has nevertheless developed it in response to a lack of function; in other words, it has made a normal response to an abnormal situation. But this response itself is now a hindrance to him, and the method advocated and employed by Mrs. Bobath is to try and reverse the wrong process, and replace it, as far as possible, by the one that should have taken place in earlier stages. 'The problem . . .' says Dr. Bobath, 'is the child's inability to do isolated movements anywhere, that is, to perform a movement of a part of the body independent of the activity of other parts. It appears as if the child has a lack of function, as if he does too little when he cannot grasp an object. His real difficulty is that he does too much . . .'

The relationship of the above statement to the question of intelligence becomes apparent when one remembers that in early years, the motor, sensory and intellectual development is closely interlinked, and deeply bound up with social development, as has been pointed out in the researches of Susan Isaacs,¹ and many of her followers, as well as by Gesell.²

Dr. Bobath describes the distressing dichotomy between the growing and the undeveloped parts of the brain: ' . . . The condition becomes worse as the child grows and undamaged parts of the brain mature. His vision and hearing may be normal, and as his intelligence develops he may become interested in his surroundings and want to move and learn the skills which are in keeping with his age. But all he can do is restricted to a few abnormal patterns of posture and movement . . . The severely-handicapped child is totally unable to overcome his physical difficulties by his own efforts . . . If he learns to sit, to stand, and to use his hands for any task, he does so with

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¹ *Intellectual Development in Young Children.*
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² A. Gesell: *The Child from one to five.*

excessive tension and effort. The constant use of his abnormal patterns . . . combined with inactivity of others, is the cause of his deformities.'

Treatment, then, was developed with a view to helping the child to break down the established abnormal patterns by inhibiting established reflex actions, and once this has been done, teaching the normal ones as one would to a very small baby that had not mastered them of its own accord. This is one reason why early treatment is so vital: wrong patterns have rarely been established as firmly as with the older child, nor have they led to such complicated and irreversible deformities. One small child of two years that had never been able to sit up, and spent his time on the floor repeating one spastic movement with his hands, had his first treatment at the Bristol Centre when the writer made these notes. After about half an hour, he was able to sit up while the mother counted twenty. The effect on the child was interesting. He had become aware of his achievement, and of the favourable response of his environment, especially the young mother. When an attempt was made to repeat the success, the child co-operated quietly, but was only able to sit up a short time, yet did not show distress. Some dim hope of better things to come must have dawned upon him. More dramatic was the first treatment of a boy of twenty who had never been to school, had not been treated, and who showed fine intelligence and a delightful sense of humour. After an hour of treatment, he was able to lift one arm for the first time in his life. His response to this success was to undertake a course of reading and writing at the Centre, in which he is making rapid progress.

The Bobath method of physiotherapy which has led to these marked successes in movement, is applied to the training in speech therapy and equally used for the benefit of spastic children. Not before some success has attended the efforts at teaching normal movement, is the speech rehabilitation of the child undertaken, in accordance with the normal sequence of development. Speech itself, often rudimentary or totally lacking in spastics, is taught from the early stages upwards. Facilitation of babbling and lalling, the child's first normal mode of speech, is undertaken by stimulation of the muscles of the mouth and palate, with their attendant nerves, and the very marked pleasure of the child in responding to these efforts of the speech therapist,

is understandable enough in the light of what psychology has taught us of the significance of the early 'oral' stages in which satisfaction is centred upon the feeding relationship with the mother.

Extremely interesting studies could be undertaken with regard to personality development in spastic children, and it is to be hoped that the great interest aroused in treatment will not only stimulate the training of specialists in physiotherapy but teachers who will find it rewarding to discover methods of bringing to the light of day what intelligence and powers of learning the spastic child possesses. Very careful tests would have to precede the teaching in every case, for one can with difficulty make a forecast of the mental powers that may be liberated when once the treatment has reached into the depth of the child's mental endowment. That physical progress stimulates mental activity, is well-known from examples of children who were kept from movement for one reason or another, over a prolonged period. These children may be referred to a Child Guidance Clinic as backward or even defective, and then be found to have been kept in bed with some illness, or prevented from contacts by an elderly or over-anxious relative, so as to have missed all stimulating motor and mental experiences. The old-fashioned orphanages, before modern legislation and training changed them out of recognition, used to abound in such cases.

A great field of interest will eventually be added to the medical, educational and psychological ones, by the search for suitable social activities when the treated spastic, whose handicap will after all remain severe, becomes capable of living in the world. Delightful though the Centre is for a group of helpless children who are more or less dependent upon one another for any contact outside their own family, when once a child has developed some powers of movement, speech and learning—after a long period of patient work, be it understood—he will begin to look upon himself as someone who may claim a place in the world, and demand occupations and rewards comparable to those of his fellow men. Will there be chances for work, paid or unpaid, but socially useful and satisfactory? This would be the test of the full success of such an admirable community effort as the Bristol Spastics Centre represents.

NEWS AND NOTES

DUTCH SECTION

After the summer holidays I took over the general secretariat of the section, again assisted by Mrs. Smit-Miessen and Mr. J. R. Janssen who was Secretary-Treasurer in former years and who is again a member of the Executive Committee.

As it is impossible to bring the Executive Committee together often enough to deal with all the section's problems successfully, the Executive Committee appointed a sub-committee consisting of Mrs. Smit-Miessen, Mr. J. Muusses and myself. We meet regularly one evening each week in Utrecht. The main tasks we have to face are:

- (1) Preparations for the International Conference in 1956, for which we are in permanent touch with Headquarters.
- (2) The building of regional groups to prepare section-members for the 1956 Conference.

At the June Conference (see the September-October issue of *The New Era*, page 165) we found that although all participants (parents, teachers, child-welfare and mental health experts) deal daily with different aspects of the same problem—the child somewhere between mental health and mental disturbance—there is a regular exchange of ideas and co-operation only between psychiatrists, child protection workers and probation officers. We are convinced that the N.E.F.'s concern with problems of positive mental health will bring to a head the new educational objectives which we are seeking in our bewildering society. One way of doing this will be by exchanging ideas and co-operation between all concerned with children. We therefore hope that we shall be able to set up regional groups consisting not only of members of the teaching profession and parents, but of all those groups whose selected representatives we brought together in June and those groups who are concerned with out-of-school activities with children. In close co-operation with the Dutch National Federation for Mental Health we will experiment with mental hygiene films in order to find out ways of getting straight to the core of a special problem. To this end, mental hygiene films are seen regularly by one or two members of the Staff in the premises of the Dutch Federation for Mental Health in Amsterdam.

- (3) The third task is to achieve co-operation with other teacher-organizations in common projects. The Staff is working out new propaganda material. It would be helpful if other sections' secretaries would send specimens of their propaganda material to the secretary of the Dutch section.

We ordered 280 copies of the November num-

ber of *The New Era*. 267 copies have been sold so far. Both for the April and the November numbers a mimeographed announcement was sent out to private persons, schools, training colleges and so on containing the synopsis we received from Dr. P. Volkov and an attached subscription form. So we were able to order the April number without any risk and the November number with very little. The total order of 446 April numbers brought about a net profit of nearly £8—which was set apart for propaganda purposes for further N.E.F. publications, international numbers, N.E.F. Book Club, and so on. The net profit of the November number will be remitted to *The New Era*.

On November 4th Mr. Annand broke his journey to Germany to make a short stay in Utrecht. In the morning Mr. Annand and I inspected several buildings and rooms which are to be considered in the planning of the 1956 Conference. After lunch Mr. Muusses joined us and, thanks to his speedy car, we visited a number of hostels in the wooded surroundings of Utrecht.

On November 20th and 21st the Workgroup for Mathematics organized its annual week-end conference. The general theme was: *Initial geometry teaching in secondary schools*. About eighty people attended, many of whom are teachers of mathematics in traditional schools.

The Annual General Meeting was held on November 27th. This was the last section activity at which Kees Boeke was present. He ended his work in the Dutch Section whose President he has been for nearly twenty years with an inspiring talk on the meaning of Fellowship.

On December 18th and 19th the Workgroup International Plan in Zaandam for the first time exhibited the project which will be sent to the Victoria Section as early as possible in 1955. The local newspapers showed much interest in this exhibition which contains seventy projects and a large collection of interesting art work. The contributions were made by one infant school and by different primary and secondary schools. In Zaandam only the children's contributions were on show. We hope to be able to show the enlarged exhibition in Utrecht in the spring.

On December 11th former and present members of the Executive Committee gave a small intimate dinner-party for Betty and Kees Boeke. It was an honour and a very great pleasure for us all, that next to Kees sat Dr. Elisabeth Rotten, who, lovely as ever, had travelled expressly from her home in Switzerland to Utrecht to be with us.

SUSAN FREUDENTHAL-LUTTER, *Secretary*

GERMAN SECTION

Since the planned Summer Conference for 1954 had to be postponed to 1955, a meeting of group delegates took place in Frankfurt/Main at the beginning of October. The delegates came from the groups in Berlin, Flensburg, Hamburg, Cologne, Dortmund, Treysa, Loheland, Weilburg/Lahn, Limburg/Lahn (a newly formed group), Wiesbaden, Frankfurt/Main and Munich. The reports showed that the work of the groups in the different areas is concerned more and more with the young generation. So—from a general aspect—the work of the Section finds its continuation and a source of new energy, even if the difficulties of a renewal in education are growing.

Some remarkable results are worked out in the field of 'Co-operation between teachers and parents'. In an earlier report the activities of the *Arbeitskreis Neue Erziehung* in Berlin were mentioned. In 1954 this group arranged forty meetings with parents besides their every-day activities (parents' library, consultations in child guidance and the like). A mimeographed circular is sent regularly to a number of parents in the City of Berlin giving them advice in their little problems. At regular meetings the *Frankfurt* group started the preparation of simple news sheets for parents for distribution at parents' meetings. The themes of the most recent sheets are: *Why does your child lie?*; *Why does your child arrive late (at school)?*; *What does your child do after school?*; *What does your child read?*; *Give your child the right order!* The preparation of new leaflets has already begun. Since there are so many orders for copies the first ones will be reprinted within the next few weeks. The preparation of these sheets seems to be a good way in getting a large number of people acquainted with educational ideas. Teachers also get stimulation from the news sheets for the preparation of their classroom meetings with parents.

According to the constitution a vote was held for the new Executive Board of the Section. Mr. Franz Hilker (President), Mr. Bruno W. Karlsson (Secretary) and Miss Mathilde Siebert (Treasurer) were re-elected. Dr. Heinrich Sesemann (Berlin), Dr. Christoph Carstensen (Flensburg), Mr. Ewald Reincke (Cologne), Dr. Adolph Hasseberg (Dortmund) and Dr. Sophie Köberle (Bayreuth) became assessors on the Board.

At the meeting of Section Representatives at Brussels in July 1954 the German Section was asked to be the host for the next meeting. The group delegates unanimously agreed to make enquiries about finance and accommodation as a basis for sending the official invitation to Headquarters. It was suggested to hold the meeting in

the Teachers' College at Weilburg/Lahn from July 25th—August 3rd, 1955. The Summer Conference of the German Section should be arranged to follow this meeting in the same place so that the delegates would have the opportunity of staying a little longer. Everything is done to bring this tentative planning to realization.

BRUNO W. KARLSSON, *Secretary*

NEW SOUTH WALES SECTION Armidale Branch

This branch continues to have 65 members. Three meetings were held during the year; the first we all especially enjoyed and appreciated as we met and were addressed by Dr. L. Zilliacus on *Education in India*. At the second, three speakers, Dr. R. G. Staines, Professor A. Voisey and Mr. David Werne, discussed *American Education*. Dr. Staines and Professor Voisey are Australians who have recently returned from spending some time in America, and Mr. Werne is an American at present doing undergraduate studies at the University of New England. About 80 members and friends of the Armidale Branch attended each of these meetings.

The third meeting was a one night and day Conference, an annual feature of the Armidale Branch which originated from the overseas speakers who visited Australia in 1951. On this occasion about 200 people attended and addresses were delivered by Professor D. Howie, Mr. E. Dunlop, Mr. D. Verco (Assistant to the Director General of Education in New South Wales), Dr. L. Kemp, Mr. W. Carr and Miss D. Bayliss.

We had one very interesting session under the heading *Questions which Parents would like to have answered* when a panel of speakers dealt with various questions raised by parents, for example: What is the value of knowledge of I.Q.? Why are not parents told children's I.Q.s? Why teach spelling? Corporal punishment and so on.

C. CAREY, *Acting Secretary*

NORWEGIAN SECTION

This Section has had two meetings in the autumn. About two hundred people followed with vivid interest the lectures given by Dr. Seyffarth and lektor Langeland on *Relaxation in School*. Different sorts of school furniture were demonstrated. The lectures produced a lively discussion.

At the other meeting the lecture was given by the well-known Danish psychologist and teacher—school inspector Sofie Rifbjerg. Her theme was *Children with adaption difficulties: What Denmark does for those children*. This interesting lecture was followed by discussion, a discussion that will be continued at a meeting in January.

KAY PIENE, *International Secretary*

WEST AUSTRALIA SECTION

During the latter part of the year two very successful Parentcraft groups were conducted under the auspices of the Fellowship. The earlier group was better attended, but it is uncertain whether this was due to the parents of young children being more interested in parentcraft problems, or whether the second group, which was limited to the parents of older children, was formed rather late in the year, when everybody gets extremely busy. In any case, the results were sufficiently successful to indicate a need for further effort along these lines during the coming year. The thanks of the Section are due to Mrs. Wilkinson, who did most of the organizing connected with the groups.

An outstandingly successful all-day Conference centred round the subject *Education for Present Day Living* was held at the Teachers' College, Claremont, in mid-September. The surroundings were ideal, every possible assistance was rendered by the Principal of the College and his staff, with the result that a thoroughly enjoyable and stimulating day was spent by the fifty or more people who attended. Professor Walker, of the Psychology Department, University of W. A., gave the introductory address, and the hard

work of organization was undertaken by Mr. W. D. Neal. At the closing session, when all groups gathered for a general inclusive discussion, there was a unanimous demand that such Conferences be organized more frequently. Tentative plans are in hand to have a second one in early April 1955.

The resignation of Mr. J. Yates, President of the Section, was received with regret, strongly tinged by the Section's rejoicing at his selection to take up an Empire Scholarship in England. Since the departure of Mr. and Mrs. Yates for England, Mr. Peterson has ably filled the position of Acting President of the Section.

The Section has an active representative on the W. A. Native Welfare Council and the W. A. Association for Children's Films. The Federal President, Mr. W. H. Anderson, represented the New Education Fellowship at the Citizenship Convention held in Canberra during January.

With summer upon us, the Section activities will run slowly until March next, when the annual general meeting will be held, and definite plans made for the W. A. Section of the Group Work which will be undertaken during 1955 by Professor Bream.

M. E. HAZELHURST, *Hon. Secretary*

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99 GREAT RUSSELL STREET, W.C.1

The Year Book of Education, 1954. Edited by Robert King Hall, N. Hans, and J. A. Lauwerys. (Evans Bros. 63/-).

This is an excellent book about educational and social problems of importance to all peoples and nations. Its aim is to examine and evaluate, with particular reference to the rôle of education, some factors in the social and economic revolution which is taking place in 'under-developed' countries, as a result of the spread of Western technology. The term 'under-developed' as applied to societies is used throughout in the sense defined by the editors, who say, 'we do not imply that these are backward in culture, humanity or civilization, but only that their populations have not yet learned to use fully the powers which science and technology have created.' This was the sense used by President Truman in his speech of 1949 when he said, 'Fourth, we must embark on a bold new programme for making the benefits of our scientific advances and industrial progress available for the improvement and growth of under-developed areas.' So began the much-discussed Point Four projects. Indeed all the major work of the United Nations Technical Assistance schemes, and the initiation of the Colombo Plan for the development of South and South-East Asia have taken place since these words of Mr. Truman. This indicates how recent have been the deliberate attempts of industrialized nations to transmit their technological methods to those peoples who are demanding the material benefits which they hope will follow. This is not to say that the process of technological change, by all the usual means of culture contact, has not been going on among backward and partially industrialized regions for much longer. But it does emphasize that the acceleration of change, the planning of assistance from the West, and the concentrated export of scientific techniques with the necessary personnel and provision of capital funds, is proceeding at such a pace as to produce not only significant results but also many of the difficulties and doubts dealt with in this Year Book.

The book is admirably planned and follows a logical course of development in its six sections and fifty-nine chapters. Section I deals with *Aims, Objectives and Implications*, and is followed by Section II on *Cultural Change*. Here the root of many of the problems is exposed by a consideration of the impacts of one form of society on another in the light of what is already known of the mechanisms of social change. Section

Book Reviews

III is called *Planning and Education* and describes definite projects which have been undertaken through official technical assistance programmes or on the initiative of national governments. Section IV gives details of the *Techniques and Methods* employed, with a discussion of the necessary training, leadership and social adjustment required in relation to the motives and incentives involved. Section V on the *Agencies of Administration* shows the parts played by local and national efforts, the churches and missions, private and commercial agencies and national and international organizations. Finally Section VI on *The Impact of Western Culture* consists of two important chapters, which to some extent summarize and evaluate the aims and results described in the rest of the book.

However the most valuable summary and critical appreciation of the world-wide problem which faces us is given by the editors in their introductory chapter. They pick at once on the crucial questions, 'Is Western technology detachable from the Western cultural background? Is it transferrable to anyone who learns the technical tricks?' The impossibility of transplanting our techniques into a non-technical culture without causing profound changes in the rest of the native culture is stressed by those other contributors who are anthropologists or who write from a sociological point of view. For example Dr. Kenneth Little speaks of the 'de-tribalization' which has followed Western ways in Africa, and the break-up of family life which follows the division of labour and the conflict of values. Dr. E. R. Leach in a provocative chapter on *Educational Incentives* makes it quite clear that new cultural values cannot be imposed on another society which is an unwilling recipient except at the cost of suffering. He shows that the greatest difficulty of Technical Assistance is that its educational programme easily assumes a European ideology, and indeed is mostly welcomed by those members of the receiving society who wish to break away from their own cultures and become 'European'. T. R. Batten writing on *Social Adjustment to Technological Change* sees the human relations established between the innovator and those he is trying to teach as the critical factors. Only if the new methods are accepted by the community and then directed by themselves, can success be achieved. This inevitably means that attempts at rapid changes are always dangerous, and P. C. C. Evans in an excellent

chapter on *Cultural Patterns* concludes that the introduction of a new technology must be controlled, and suggests 'The aim has to be qualified: it must be to raise the standard of living with the minimum loss of cultural integrity.' Similar points are made in the lively and well-written chapter on *The Rôle of Education* by Professor Brunner of Columbia University. He realizes that the educator must work in harmony with the culture of the people he is serving, and begin at the point they themselves have reached. Yet he is more hopeful than some that Western values can be transmitted and are worth while. He ends by saying, 'in these under-developed lands education is not the mere transmission of a new technique. It is the implanting of a radically changed outlook in the minds and hearts of men. For, granted all the faults that may mar Western culture, it is none the less the value placed on the human personality and the freedom of the human spirit, that has to a large extent motivated the drive to make men free for the richer, deeper things of life through ever improved techniques.' Yes, we in the West believe in freedom, and we also want television sets and motor cars—is it always with the 'richer, deeper things of life' in view?

The above quotation leads to the consideration of moral values. The editors in their introduction again ask the crucial questions, 'In any case, what is meant by a better life? Shall it be modelled in the antiseptic, efficient, dynamic, moneyed and phrenetic culture pattern of the technological West? Or shall it be

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the contemplative, leisurely, mystical, class-structured, traditional society of the under-developed area?' And again 'Are we in the West certain that what is good for us is good for all?' Unfortunately these questions are difficult to answer, but they are carefully considered in one of the most important chapters in the book on *Moral and Ethical Implications*. This is in three parts and written in turn from a Western, an Indian and a Moslem-Arab point of view. What is quite certain is that the East thinks of these things in a different way from the West, and in spiritual values one cannot call the East under-developed.

However, under suitable conditions, it is clear that Eastern peoples are able successfully to acquire Western techniques. This is shown by the examples of Japan and the Soviet Union, which the editors regard as exceptional cases. It is also shown to some extent by India as K. G. Saiyadan points out, though the process may be a little slower. It may be happening in China, but no mention is made of China—presumably because the aid is coming from a different direction of the compass. Elsewhere, in Africa, in Iran, in parts of Asia, there are some failures to report, some wrong motives and some disruption of communities. All this is examined by David Blleloch in one of the final chapters on *The Clash of Cultures*. It would appear that the most successful projects have had a clear and limited aim and adequate planning, but above all have been accepted freely by the receiving society and developed so as to be integrated into their own way of life.

With a volume of this size and importance it is only possible in a brief review to touch on a few of the major themes, and to refer to a few of the contributors. Other excellent articles are by A. D. K. Owen of the United Nations, Willard Beatty formerly of Unesco, and Lionel Elvin on *What Fundamental Education Is*. Of great importance also is the work of commercial agencies. Some of the best technical education of the uneducated has been undertaken by the oil companies of Saudi Arabia and Iraq. Again, some mention should be made of Latin America. Here are vast regions for development, which are receiving much support from several U.S.A. organizations. A country to watch is evidently Brazil. There are two and a half chapters devoted exclusively to Brazil, and it is mentioned in three others. Its technological education has kept pace with its amazing industrial development, largely owing to a co-operative effort by Brazil's private industry, and there has also been a rapid growth of rural schools and adult education in agriculture.

This is indeed a fascinating book of interest to all who believe or do not believe in the Euro-American idea of Progress. It is to be hoped that this brief account will stimulate the reader to read this Year Book.

A. K. C. Ottaway

The Education of Teachers in England, France and U.S.A.

C. A. Richardson, Hélène Brûlé, Harold E. Snyder. (Published by Unesco. \$2; 11/6; 550 francs).

This particular volume, one of the titles in the Unesco series 'Problems in Education', is published—so the preface tells us—'as part of a general programme for furthering the cause of universal compulsory education'. The urgency of the problem of finding suitably qualified teachers in sufficient numbers in order to bring about more effective and extended education at all levels is recognized, and it is hoped that a published account of the position in three highly developed educational systems will be useful to other countries in solving their own problems.

The three authors concerned, all experts in their particular field, are to be congratulated on having written extremely clear, concise and readable accounts of what has been done in their respective countries. All the pertinent questions are asked and answered. How shall teachers be recruited? What methods of selection are to be employed? What shall the length of the training period be? What shall be the content of the curriculum in the

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various training institutions? What are the prospects of advancement and promotion? What is the teacher's 'standing'? That is to say, these questions are answered in terms of what is present practice in the three countries concerned, and not in terms of what the authors might think desirable. An objective standpoint has been maintained, so much so, indeed, that one cannot escape the feeling that all three contributors were working to a very closely-worded directive. As a result, the American contribution, openly acknowledged as being a co-operative endeavour involving the efforts of many persons, is the most satisfactory and the most 'full-blooded'. When a group of people work as a team on such an enterprise they are not afraid to put forward their individual views and preferences, knowing full well that in committee all this will cancel itself out in the right way, in the objective way. When a single individual (as is apparently the case with the English and French contributors) has to cancel himself out as it were, then caution prevails and the inspiration born of temerity is lost. One cannot help but draw comparisons between this book and the vaster 'Year Book of Education for 1953' and feel that the latter, with its deliberate individual hotch-potch approach to the same problems, has been more successful because more dynamic and more purposive.

From the point of view of the comparative educationist, however, the Unesco publication is a happy hunting-ground. None of the three contributors has managed to escape (or I suppose even tried to escape) from the national

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mould. He (or she) speaks convincingly either with the unmistakable voice of the English civil servant, cautious in mastery of the art of under-statement; or with that of the no-nonsense school of French educationists who know exactly what they are doing and why they are doing it, and are utterly convinced of the rightness of what they are doing; or with the pragmatic enthusiasm of the American given to boisterous meaningful interpretation of masses of tabulated data of all kinds.

The conclusions to be drawn from a study of these three accounts are no less illuminating, but as Dr. Karl Bigelow has carefully noted most of these for us in his introduction to the book, let us rather pay attention to those that arise which it may have been thought better to leave implicit rather than stated, for they are controversial to a degree. First, it becomes quite clear that whilst a teacher must be above all else an able practitioner in the classroom, it is only the student who is versatile, independent of mind and adaptable at a serious academic level who is likely to achieve that high degree of required skill in his job. The French contribution to the book makes this abundantly clear, while the English contribution hedges, and the American one might well have provoked Lord Montgomery's recent pronouncement that the system seemed 'to lump all boys into one common or comprehensive school in the hopes that the leaders will emerge from the ruck'. Secondly, the glaring omission from Mademoiselle Hélène Brûlé's account of any mention of training for the

future *lycée* teacher (and there are some interesting developments of an experimental kind now taking place), and Mr. Richardson's inadequate account of what is being done in England in University Departments of Education, both reveal that in Europe at any rate (with the possible exception of Western Germany) there is no real faith placed as yet in the value of such training. Mr. Richardson hints that this attitude will not change until 'education' is accepted as a serious academic subject by the universities themselves.

Cannot Unesco follow up this important (though perhaps of necessity imperfect) study of teacher-training in these countries with a comprehensive and comparative survey of these acute problems of the training of the *lycée* and grammar school teacher?

Vernon Mallinson

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rightly many of them 'stoop to conquer'. Here are incentives to honest writing by the child which is surely the greatest need in the schools of to-day, and also opportunities for purposeful practice in reading aloud.

So far as the writing is concerned many of the authors will be partly known from the children's experiences of radio, films, and television. It is this contemporary nature of the material, and the focus on the everyday and first-hand, that will make a direct appeal. Not until Book III are they taken back to Early Drama and only in the Fourth Year to Hakluyt's *Voyages*. Shakespeare appears but once and then only in eight lines of descriptive poetry from *Venus and Adonis*. The use made of J. B. Priestley, John Buchan, R. L. Stevenson, E. V. Lucas, Edmund Blunden, A. A. Milne, Hugh Walpole, Dickens, A. F. Tschiffely, and A. G. Street, or of passages from *Heidi*, *Emil and the Detectives*, *Tom Brown*, *Alice*, *Robinson Crusoe*, *Wind in the Willows* and *Bevis* will perhaps suggest what is characteristic of this selection.

The illustrations are consistent with the 'modern' atmosphere of all four books and in many cases could lead to useful links with the work in Art in those happy schools where such joint activity is possible. Certainly those many teachers who are convinced of their basic duty to plan the work so that the young are constantly involved in a *synthesis* of all their activities in the mother tongue will find this series very stimulating and helpful.

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

PARENTAL AUTHORITY

Dr. André Berge, Director of the Centre Psychopédagogique de l'Académie de Paris

THE problem of authority is important for all people who are in charge of children, particularly for parents. It is a practical, daily problem which may bring the wills of adults and children into prolonged struggles, which some adults feel they must always win. It is also a theoretical problem, which crops up in almost all discussions about the up-bringing of children. It is natural that parental authority should be a sensitive point for parents. If their children come up against the law, it is the parents who are blamed, it is they who are accused of not asserting sufficient authority, and childless people never tire of attributing any falling off in moral standards to a lack of parental control.

Furthermore, it is easiest to attribute all difficulties to weakness and lack of will-power. A certain laziness in our thinking makes us assume that if things go badly it is because we have not put enough energy into making them go well. It seems to us simple and proper to brace our wills more firmly and to put greater effort into overcoming the obstacle. When their children do not do as they wish, many parents ask themselves whether they should not 'put the screw on,' although many children, without our being aware of it, are already crushed beneath the weight of an authority whose clumsiness or harshness are not liable to ease matters.

An intellectual effort to understand what is going on in the feelings of child and parents is certainly more exacting, but it alone will enable us to view the problem of authority in its proper light, which is psychological and emotional. When we speak of the present lack of parental authority, what do we mean? What does it amount to? Why does it exist? And in what sense are we asking for authority to be restored? Is the only

thing we hope for a new generation of children who will obey implicitly?

Bemused by this problem of authority, we tend too often to make a false distinction between traditional and 'new' education: we label traditional education 'authoritarian', and new education 'liberal'. This is an over-simplification and contains an error of perspective. If it is true that the new education is more liberal than the old, this is not its essential characteristic. Its liberalism is the result of a different educational attitude which maintains that education should not be imposed from outside, nor handed out to children in the form of lessons. The teacher's aim is to enable the child to educate himself, making use of his own potentialities. Since ancient times, when the child was looked upon as simply the property of his family and when the parents had the power of life or death over him, the notion of the family has developed profoundly. To-day the family seems to us to exist primarily for the child. Its value depends on the conditions it can offer the child for his development, growth and unfolding. In this context, authority no longer appears as a right that parents exert over their children, but as a condition necessary to the child's development, to his attaining maturity.

Authority is profitable to an infant in so far as it gives him the stability and security which meet his first biological needs by regulating his

every-day life. Later it offers the child an image of parents who are firm and strong, models with which he can identify himself more willingly than if his parents were weak, and hardly able to defend themselves against his own childish wilfulness. It is very important that the parents, especially the father, should represent a certain power or strength. The child feels himself small, weak,

The three main articles in this issue of *The New Era* have been translated from the French, by kind permission of the Ecole des Parents, 47 Rue Miromesnil, Paris 8e. They fill out the admirable picture of the work done by this organization given by Monsieur Isambert in *The New Era*, December 1954. A large collection of illustrated brochures are available in French at 25 francs each, and the annual subscription to the magazine, *L'Ecole des Parents*, is 825 francs.—Ed.

lost in a world of adults; he needs to feel himself loved and protected by adults who are themselves powerful and who do not give him the impression that they will easily be vanquished.

By their authority parents are also able to bring their children to face reality. A young child goes naturally towards everything that pleases him, just as a plant turns towards the light. In the early part of his life he knows no other law, but he soon comes up against reality, which at times gives him rather rude lessons. Certainly if reality is given free play the child will learn that fire burns and water drowns; but it is more economical to spare him such experiences. It is therefore the parents' part to substitute themselves for the harsher lessons of reality, using their authority to protect the child from certain dangers which he cannot yet understand and which are replaced by more harmless risks, a scolding or a punishment.

Authority also protects the rights of parents and their liberty. The freedom of children ends where that of parents begins, and *vice versa*. The frontier-line is difficult to draw, but it exists all the same, so long as one takes one's stand not on whim but on equity.

These comments seemed useful before we embark upon the study of varieties of parental authority, and upon an analysis of their subjective and emotional aspects.

Aspects of Authority

These are fairly well described by three common terms: to have authority, to be authoritarian and to be a despot. Though sometimes confused these three ways of behaving are really fundamentally different, and a great deal of harm is caused by confusing legitimate authority with its perversions.

If one has authority one has no need to be authoritarian. I remember a grammar school teacher who had great authority in his classroom, but who never needed to threaten or punish because he had a *natural* authority. Because it was natural in him, this does not mean that it cannot be cultivated. Doubtless it is favoured by certain physical qualities, such as a good voice and carriage, but it derives above all from intellectual and moral qualities which impress other people without the need for emphasis. It is not incompatible with friendliness. We all know parents who are on easy terms with their children, who are not necessarily obeyed to the letter, but

who are listened to, and who exercise a real influence over the lives of their children.

To be authoritarian is, one might say, a mode of behaviour due to a temperamental trait. The authoritarian person displays a lack of understanding of the personalities of other people and a refusal to admit ways of thinking, feeling and acting other than his own. In relationships with children such a temperament betrays itself in a wish to be in the right at whatever cost, and in an inability to allow children to express personal ideas and take a line of their own.

Despotism is a more marked, and therefore a graver form of the preceding attitude. In extreme cases it reaches a nonsensical formalism. The real educational aim is lost sight of, and importance is no longer attached to the spirit but to the letter. Insistence on the letter of the law denotes a decrease of real authority, although external results might lead one to imagine the opposite. A man who is a despot within his family circle is often compensating for the weakness and timidity which he displays in his professional or social life. If one suffers from the meekness of one's habitual attitude, the rôle of despot, even if ephemeral, is particularly intoxicating. Despotism is not however always the counterpart of obvious weakness, it is very often a reaction from a feeling of weakness which must be hidden from the eyes of all beholders. Its effect within the family is to change up-bringing into a battle.

I remember a little girl whose parents insisted that she wear a feeder during meals. One day she refused to put it on, promising not to spill anything, so as to prove that she was a big girl. The parents had not understood *why* the child was opposing them, and felt that they must insist upon the feeder at all costs. They thus risked losing the benefits of the child's effort to behave like a big girl. It would have been easy to go back to the old custom if she had made too much mess, but meanwhile, why not let her try her luck?

Formalism makes one forget the real purpose of an order given. In despotic forms of education, the word of the adult becomes, as soon as uttered, a sacred word, impossible to discuss, an inescapable obligation. Despotism appears irrational, arbitrary, generally noisy and definitely ineffective. Natural authority on the contrary appears rational, just, usually quiet and, of

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course, efficacious ! Since in these conditions it is useful to the child, since the family is necessarily a hierarchical society, why do we too often make discipline an instrument harmful to the child and to family harmony ?

The Subjective Aspect of Authority

The key to the diverse attitudes of parents to the problem of authority is clearly their own degree of emotional maturity. An excess or a lack of authority have often the same causes at their root.

The childhood of the parents themselves often helps us to understand their present attitudes. No man is neutral towards the upbringing which he himself has received; we are all for or against it. With our own children therefore we tend either to repeat what was done to us, or to do the very opposite. Either we try to be as authoritarian as people were to us, which is both a revenge for, and the fruit of, our own docility to our parents. Or else we wish not to exercise any authority ourselves in order to adopt the exact opposite of our parents' attitude. Some people because they suffered from the authoritarianism of their own parents try to exact nothing by force or by punishment, yet they exact just as much by appealing to their children's sensibilities, and in this way constrict a child as much as if they were authoritarian. The hostility aroused by authority to which they had to submit in their childhood makes certain parents incapable of controlling or directing their children even in the most legitimate ways. One does not dare take upon oneself an authority which one has hated, for fear of incurring a similar hatred oneself. Those who fear to become the object of their children's aggression become demagogues and seek only to please.

Many examples of this fear of exercising

authority can be found in an article in the *Revue de Psychanalyse* by Dr. Allendy called 'Rowdiness in School'. The author points out that the causes of bad discipline are often psychological, and analyses the predicament of certain teachers who cannot bear the authority that belongs to their function. Rowdiness is quite often provoked by a teacher himself and not by his pupils. How else is one to explain the teacher who, giving a lesson to an orderly class, suddenly takes it into his head to baa like a sheep, because the bleating of sheep comes into the text they are studying ? The class immediately sets about a unanimous bleating and order has flown. It is almost as though the teacher had set out inadvertently to destroy the discipline for which he was responsible.

Sometimes on the contrary a too urgent need to exercise authority debases, or destroys it. Such a need derives from two tendencies which might be called respectively paternal and maternal, though neither belongs exclusively to one or the other parent.

Despotism of the maternal type arises essentially from an anxious fear of losing the child. If she cannot make herself listened to and obeyed, the mother is afraid of seeing the child escape from her, dissociate himself from her. It is sometimes difficult for a mother to admit that her child is no longer part of herself, to see him growing, becoming independent and self-reliant, capable of undertaking something without asking for either her permission or her advice. If this is so, she views in dumb anxiety all freedom allowed to the child. If he does something he wants to do, if he no longer asks her permission, will he not do stupid things ? Many people really convince themselves that a child, left to himself, is incapable of doing anything but hurt himself. If he is not made to do his homework and learn his lessons, if he is not obliged to leave the house in good time for school, he will not take any notice either of the bus time-table or of his work. Actually the child too thinks these things important and he would think them even more important if his parents did not take over responsibilities which properly belong to him.

Because they are afraid, these maternal despots cannot prevent themselves from interfering, under the guise of saving their child and warning him of the dangers that threaten him: 'After all I really can't let him do such stupid things without saying anything,' one mother exclaimed,

although she knew perfectly well that anything she said would be quite useless and would perhaps even bring about the misfortunes she fears. The feeling that one must 'say something' is stronger than the wish to prevent stupid actions. It is a question of easing her conscience by a sort of a ritual whose practical usefulness is nil.

When a child is trying out his strength and behaving like rather a turbulent dynamo, his parents, who by definition belong to another and usually a more staid generation, often feel themselves to some extent overtaken and overwhelmed. When some parents asked the head of a college for permission to take their son home from Saturday to Monday, they received this astonishing answer: 'Impossible, because other parents might ask to be allowed to do the same and we should soon be overwhelmed.' Actually all that the college could be overwhelmed by was temporary emptiness. But this story demonstrates very well the anxiety that some teachers feel if they allow themselves to be persuaded to give in, as if something of their own being were being snatched from them. This Head Master was defending not a school rule, but himself.

The close bond that exists between a child and his mother also makes the latter very sensitive to everything that the child does, as if she herself were guilty of the faults that he commits. A mother, or indeed either parent, may be driven by a sense of guilt to exercise an excessive authority; they feel themselves to blame if they do not behave despotically and if they allow their children to make mistakes.

The paternal type of despotism is different. In many cases its source is a sort of obligation to live up to the position of 'Head of the family'. The adult reacts against a frequent feeling of inferiority, against a feeling that he is still rather a child in the depths of his being. It is annoying to feel himself a child alongside his own children, so the father who perceives his own weakness tries to establish himself, to inflate himself, in order to impress others and, above all, himself.

Sometimes, too, the father is afraid of being unworthy of his self-chosen model, which is often the image of his own father. To be a father is to identify himself with his father. But if one feels unworthy of being this, and if one cannot overcome one's sense of inferiority before so august an image, one tends to become a despot.

A need for order, a liking for a solid, well-structured system, is sometimes linked with a

fear of spontaneity and instinct. One hopes, by being rather despotic, to dam up the spontaneous forces within the child. In so doing, one hopes to find a certain moral comfort, and to triumph over one's own lack of self-confidence.

All the attitudes that we have been looking at—whether of the paternal or maternal type—depend basically on the emotional maturity of the individual. If one is to be capable of valid love and a happy marriage, one must have attained a sufficient degree of emotional maturity; the same is true if one is to exercise authority in a rational and just manner.

Actually one discovers authoritarian attitudes which retain the traits of early childhood and which are possessive. Possessiveness, the wish to dominate, even sadistic feelings are perfectly normal stages in a child's development. They persist in certain forms of pseudo-authority in spite of one's best intentions. Some parents love their children but have not themselves grown beyond the sadistic stage and so manage really to torment them by terrorizing them, humiliating them, or putting them into an anguish of fear, for example by keeping them waiting for a punishment which they are not allowed to forget for an instant.

A counterpart of sadism is masochism which can make discipline impossible. The teacher who gets himself ragged because he finds a strange but real pleasure in being ragged betrays a profound masochism. Sadism and masochism represent the two opposite effects of a lack of emotional development, the same absence of psychic maturity.

Amongst the possible anomalies of authority we should note these that result from a parent's failure to out-grow his early jealousy of one of his parents. With one's own children one can play out again the conflict which existed between oneself and one's own father or mother. From it can result the kind of jealousy for example which sets a father against his son. Because of this, some fathers impose an excessive authority upon their sons, as if to prevent them from ever equalling themselves. A sort of rivalry establishes itself between the children and the father, a rivalry in which the stake appears to be at times the love of the mother, at times social and professional success.

Some people find in the exercise of authority a personal satisfaction for their self love and exhibitionism. This reminds me of the story of

a child whose parents were very proud of his nimbleness and used to ask him to perform very elaborate somersaults in front of their guests. One day the child refused definitely to show off. First they asked him nicely, the request became an order and the order ended in threats and violence. Because of the guests the child did not want to do his somersault, and because of them, the parents felt that their self-love was engaged.

All perversions of authority bring about their own downfall. Egocentric authority runs the risk of ending in conflict, for any child feels such authority to be aggressive since it is irrational, illogical and unjust. To expect a child to live by hard and fast rules runs counter to his vital interests, his development and his maturity. If he gives in, one can be sure that he does so perforce and not with real acceptance. Consciously or unconsciously, in his depths or on the surface, he is either crushed or turned into a rebel by formalism. This is why the children of authoritarian parents are not the least of our rebels, sometimes even openly.

We know that in the course of a child's development phases of opposition occur, crises which resolve themselves normally when the time is ripe. Under an authoritarian up-bringing, these phases and these crises become permanent and chronic. Conflicts arise not only with the child but also between those who are bringing him up, if authority deviates from its proper end and is employed only as a demonstration of force and power. It no longer fulfils its rôle, which is to help the child to build up his own personality.

Having set out to win a victory over the child, those who are bringing him up—resembling in this many ex-allies—next set out to win victories over one another. They will seek to undermine literally each other's power. An authoritarian mother, who had no real authority, wanted to insist that her young child should finish up everything that was on his plate. As she did not succeed in this, she appealed to the father. When it looked as though the latter would win a battle which she had lost, she hastened to intervene and excused the child from eating any more. She did this just in time to have the last word and safeguard her rôle of supreme lawgiver. Meanwhile she put the father into a somewhat ridiculous position from which he could withdraw only by shrugging his shoulders, since a domestic scene round a badly-cleared plate would not have settled anything and would hardly have enhanced

the prestige of either partner. This mother had obviously done more to shake the father's authority than to enhance her own.

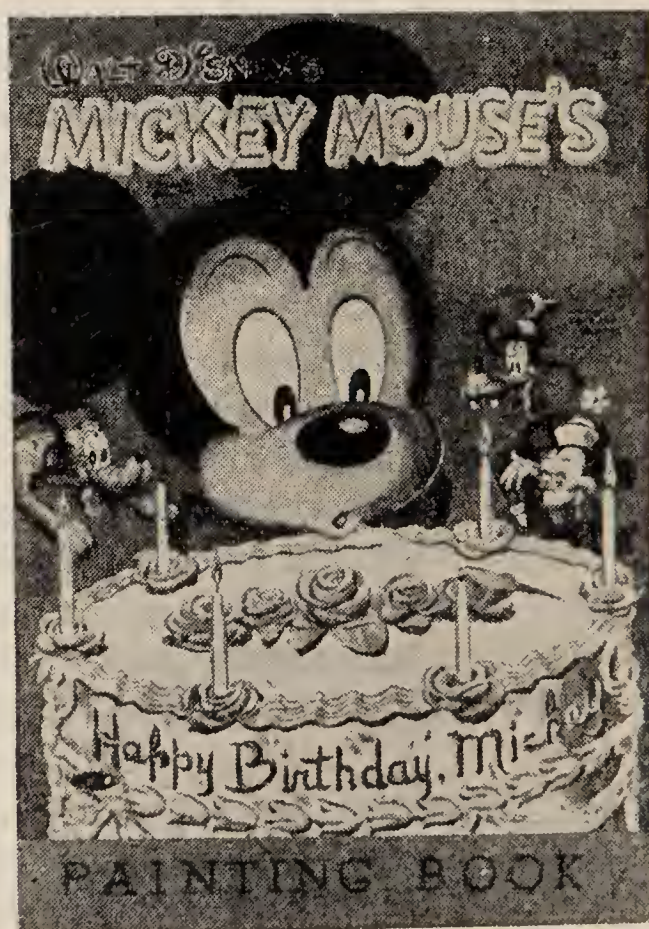
Conclusion

What seems to emerge from these considerations is that the most serious mistake one can make is to accord honour to authority itself, to give it importance apart from its legitimate functions. Authority has no value except in so far as it accords with the real life of the child, with his needs and his true development. The restrictions and limits which those who bring up children properly impose exist only provisionally, and uniquely in favour of the ultimate development of the child. Authority should tend to channel usefully the forces of youth, not to destroy them.

Authority, far from being opposed to all that is dynamic in the child, should be the willed and conscious expression of dynamic life. If it is this, it is good, not because it sustains the prestige of the person who exercises it, but because, sometimes against all appearances, it serves the best interests of those over whom it is exercised.

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THE SPIRIT OF INDEPENDENCE

André Ferré, Inspector of Primary Schools

THE new born baby, who comes into the world after nine months of a parasitic life, has to grow into an adult who can nourish, out of his own resources, his personal life and that of the family which, in his own turn, he will found. Thus nature intends that the young human being as he grows should free himself from the care and protection which is indispensable to him at first, and which assures his survival. Gradually he must learn to live his life on his own resources. The personal history of every child is the story of his progressive emancipation, of the conquest of his own independence together with the development of his own independent spirit.

A Natural Tendency yet the Source of Conflict

In order to achieve independence the child must struggle against interior obstacles, psychological ones, which oppose his desire for independence: his need for protection and security, his habits of obedience, and, of course, the weakness that belongs to his age. But he must struggle even harder against external obstacles, social ones, which counter his attempts at emancipation with the authority of his parents and the discipline of his home and school. Here lie permanent chances of conflict more or less latent, more or less profound and lasting, in which one can see one of the most characteristic aspects of the eternal quarrel between the generations.

The child's side: The young boy, the little girl, seize every chance they can to try out their spirit of independence. They long, for example, to eat at their own discretion, to have plenty of spending money like their brothers and sisters, to go out whenever they wish; whereas for a long time adult care will be necessary in order to help them to avoid indigestion, extravagance and bad company. Later on, as students, they will be in a hurry to lead their own lives, to fly with their own wings, at a time when they cannot do without the economic and even the moral support of their family.

The constraints engendered by this kind of protection are not submitted to without impatience. The child and the adolescent, hungry for independence, submit to adult authority while straining at the leash, or play tricks with it in

order to get round it, or enter into open revolt against it. Thus resentment, trickery and disobedience may accompany the spirit of independence and are exaggerated by clumsy upbringing.

The parent's side: What heightens the drama is that, whilst the child is in a hurry to grow up, or at least to do as grown-ups do, the parents often remain attached to an out-grown picture of their son or daughter, especially in the case of only children. They tend to see them as more childish than they now are, and because they lag behind their children's growth, their view of them is out of perspective. They are also apt to retain a closer and more anxious hold over them than is suitable. The injunctions and advice, which they feel justified in terms of their anxiety for their child's fate, appear to the child as unnecessary interference. The child's growing detachment from his parents is a law of nature, but parents find it difficult to accept. They strive to postpone it, hoping thus to postpone the onset of solitariness, old age and death, those other natural laws.

As always in the upbringing of children, we ought to take sides with the future against attachment to the past, with liberty against constraint. We parents should acknowledge the spirit of independence as a legitimate exercise. Without giving in blindly to its claims, we should understand it in order to come to terms with it and in order not to drive it into rebellion. In fact we should progressively adapt our indispensable authority to the new being which is emerging within our child. We should lead him to know how to obey all that is reasonable within himself, instead of putting him back upon the leash. We should lead him to be able to do without us, for this is the highest ambition of any parent or teacher.

Manifestations of the Spirit of Independence

Let us try to discover the nature of this spirit of independence by examining some real examples of how it works. This may illumine for us how we should behave towards it.

Refusal to be helped: Peter is not yet three and a half; he has begun rather early to say 'No' to every request, to hasten to do anything he is forbidden to do. 'Don't want to' is his favourite

declaration. At the moment he is busy building a tower out of dominoes, placing them in couples face to face, each couple at right angles to that below. It is difficult, and several attempts have not got him further than the fourth storey. His Uncle, watching him, offers to help. So he builds up a tower of nine storeys, explaining in an encouraging tone how it should be done. But the child has turned away from his undertaking as soon as an adult came into it, and has started ostentatiously setting out his lead soldiers. When the Uncle, rather vexed but dignified, goes back to reading his paper, Peter turns round and—Crash! destroys the tower with a triumphant fist without waiting to examine, let alone admire, it. He then sets about building his dominoes in his own way, which does not succeed any better than before.

It would be easy to interpret his behaviour wrongly, and to imagine that it is inspired by dislike of his Uncle. Actually the explanation is this spirit of independence, which we have to thank for the crisis of negativism and disobedience which he, like all normal children of his age, is going through. They are at the stage of development in which awareness of themselves denotes a transition from the first to the second stage of childhood. The young creature, who until now has been living in a state of mental and, above all, emotional fusion with his environment, and who has had to count on other people to satisfy his desires, is now discovering the effectiveness of his own personal action. He is beginning to recognize that he has a life of his own distinct from that of his relatives, and is learning that his own thinking is not present in the minds of other people, as he thought until now. This discovery of his own personality is a particularly exciting matter; he never tires of trying it out, ascertaining his own individuality and the powers which it holds, proving it to himself and to other people. He has just recognized these other people as very distinct from himself, and his systematic opposition is just one way of accentuating his separation from them. One of the most vivid and fruitful experiences is his joy in feeling within himself an active power which produces effects reserved until now to his elders!

Thus what interests Peter in building this domino tower is not the result so much as the building of it (is not this peculiar to all play activities?) The perfect result achieved by an

adult, far from pleasing him, annoys him for two reasons: on the one hand because it emphasizes his own lack of skill, his inferiority to those he is aspiring to equal; on the other hand because it has been obtained without his own active participation. He himself has no clear recognition of what has underlain his destructive gesture and his obstinacy in beginning again without paying heed to the advice he has been given, but he certainly wants to prove to himself his creative power by carrying out a difficult task alone.

Making oneself felt: A few months earlier this same Peter seeing and hearing an older child turning a rattle, a new toy to him, shouted, holding out his arms towards it: 'Me, Me.' He did not want to possess the toy but rather, by imitating the movement that he saw the other child making, to become himself the cause of the noise produced.

A year later, when his father wanted to help him put together the rails of the clockwork train which he had had for Christmas, he reacted less violently than when he destroyed the tower, but in rather the same way, protesting very significantly: 'No, No. Me by myself.' 'But you see you can't do it; it's too difficult for you.' 'Doesn't matter. I want to do it on my lone.' The father would have been wiser not to stress the child's incompetence. His insistence that the task was beyond Peter anchored the child in his obstinate wish to do something which is reserved to people who are cleverer or stronger than he is. The father recognized this and a little later he proposed to be a linesman whilst his son was both foreman and station master. The child agreed, of course, proud to see the habitual rôles reversed and to exercise his powers not only over things but over a person, and what a person! For the spirit of independence is readily associated with the wish for power and domination.

Two Symmetrical Obstinacies. The spirit of independence is also accompanied by obstinacy. A twelve-year-old girl's mother does not want her to go out in winter without protecting her head from cold with a beret or a scarf, but this conflicts with Claudine's sense of what suits her and looks pretty. She has very clear ideas about such matters, based on those of school fellows whom she admires. For the spirit of independence often expresses a transfer of dependence: if one frees oneself from one's family it is often because one wishes to become more at one with some new

group; one resists the authority of one's parents in order to submit more closely to the authority of the head of some little band or gang or team. However it may be, each time Claudine goes out there is a tussle about hats. Sometimes her mother ties a scarf round her head almost by force; Claudine gives in ungraciously and takes it off halfway down stairs, leaving the house bare-headed. Her mother sees her through the window and sighs, 'Obstinate little thing'. She certainly is, but are you, her mother, any less obstinate, even though you are acting in what you think to be your child's best interests? One day, more annoyed than usual, she says to you: 'I don't stop you from putting a hat on, so please let me dress as I like.' This may be insolence inspired by her aggressive spirit of independence, but it is very instructive for she is claiming an equality between herself and you, and this is what is really at the bottom of the problem.

Aggressive Non-Conformity with Regard to Language: At about the same age Jean-Claude is living in rather a conventional, strait-laced provincial milieu, where they speak very correctly and where a swear-word thrown into conversation would be very much frowned upon. Jean-Claude begins to introduce at home the kind of slang which he has been adopting at school for some time, without so far having dared use it in the presence of his parents. One can date his new behaviour precisely from the day on which his father had turned down a plan he had made with some school friends, rather older than himself, to go off camping with a canoe for three days. The father's objection was quite legitimate, but Jean-Claude had been upset and had ended the rather lively scene by declaring: 'Dash it I'm going all the same.' He had not gone in the end, but his bad language (or what passed for such in his home) was not only a way of expressing his bad temper but was also a revenge and a way of marking his separation from his family, who were keeping him at home by force when he was wanting to go. Since that time, his way of talking affirms, at least on a verbal plane, an independence which he is granted only grudgingly in action.

Here again it should be noted that by adopting this new kind of language he is expressing his dependence on his school environment whose language he has adopted. But when the things he says are disapproved of at home either tacitly

or explicitly, one feels that Jean-Claude finds the satisfaction of a victor, comparable to the satisfaction of the first cigarette which, too, is a first sign of emancipation, a stage in achieving the status of a man.

Time to Oneself: A very common aspect of the spirit of independence in the child from ten years old onwards is the wish to escape from the society of his family during some of his free time. At adolescence, boredom with family life becomes for some really unbearable. Young people want the company of their contemporaries, of their own or the opposite sex, and the company of adults irks them at times. The adults are anxious about what their children may do once they are out of their sight, and often enough they are not wrong.

They think it necessary, before their prodigal son sets out, to multiply their advice which the latter takes to be an attack on his liberty.

Not Accounting for his Movements: Responsible adults have even more cause to be anxious because these same boys and girls who were so keen to go out on their own do not at all like accounting for how they have spent their time, especially when they are asked questions on their return, and, above all, if these questions seem to them to be rather like an inquisition. This is not necessarily because they have amused themselves in ways that would be considered wrong. It is much more because the curiosity of their parents seems to them an encroachment on the liberty which they enjoyed when they were out, rather as if someone had been keeping an eye on them all the time. A child will often tell of his own accord, at one go or in snatches, all that he has been doing, on condition that he is not pressed to do so. But if on the contrary he is pestered with questions as soon as he gets back, if he is blamed for coming in later than he was told, or even if too obvious notice is taken of the time he does return, he (or she) shuts up like a clam, replies only vaguely or abruptly, and the time which has been spent in perfectly innocent ways, becomes for the parents an irritating mystery.

Love of Secrecy: The love of secrecy in actions, plans and thoughts is closely connected with the spirit of independence. The child or adolescent who is secretive often wishes merely to preserve his personal life from intrusion or from the curiosity of others, because he wants to exercise his powers of action. Françoise (fifteen) has

saved up her pocket money and managed to buy herself a jacket, choosing it for herself without a word to anybody. She has hung it up in her cupboard, as well hidden as possible, and suddenly puts it on one day when she is having friends to her house. She thinks more of this jacket than of any of her other clothes, because it seems to her to be more really her own.

Jacques (thirteen) has secretly taken part in a competition organized by a newspaper. One fine day the postman brings in the parcel containing the prize he has won—a propelling pencil. It is only then that he tells his parents of the origin of this object. Do not let us say that these adolescents are secretive or on their guard. They want above all to prove to themselves that they are no longer children, that they are already capable of behaving like grown ups, and without the latter's help. Their conduct proceeds from the same sources as Peter's: 'Do it on my lone.'

Negative and Positive Aspects of Independence: Adults in contact and often in conflict with children whose spirit of independence is keen or precocious, tend to see in it only its negative aspects: obstinacy (which is sometimes as we have seen only a reflection of their own obstinacy), disobedience, rebellion against legitimate authority, unsociableness, bear-like solitariness. Do not let our own bias and egotism make us aware only of the reverse side of a phenomenon which plays such an essential rôle in the formation of character and individuality.

Doubtless the spirit of independence can take on pathological forms. The most characteristic of these is truancy. A child exasperated by conflict with his family, or simply egged on by a wish to escape from a regulated life, leaves the house and wanders about at will at a greater or less distance during several days. Roger Martin du Gard describes a truancy of this sort in the first volume of *Les Thibault*, where an excessive paternal authority is at least in part responsible.

As a rule the spirit of independence is composed of affirmation much more than of negation. What is affirmed is quite simply the child's self, his growing personality becoming conscious of itself and aspiring towards complete autonomy.

Ages and Degrees of the Spirit of Independence: Independence is not equally developed in all children. It is stronger in boys than in girls, who are more apparently docile, adapting themselves more easily to social demands, more

amenable. Parents have no reason to rejoice if a child lays no claim to independence. This happens only if his need for security, his wish for protection, is stronger than the opposite tendencies. Such a child allows himself to be coddled, even perhaps asks to be so; obedience costs him nothing; he takes no initiative even in the things that matter most to him—what he eats or wears, his friendships and the ways in which he spends his leisure time. Later on he will have the same kind of attitude towards his choice of work and of a marriage partner. He leaves everything to his father or mother whenever there is any need for him to make up his mind, and if a choice is offered to him he always gives the same answer: 'Whichever you like.' When he is little, this may give his mother certain tender satisfactions; but this habit of referring constantly to other people for their advice, or at least for their approval, is a very poor preparation for the responsibilities which life will oblige him to undertake. If it were possible to suppress the spirit of independence from the nature of our children we should have to take great pains not to do so.

Two periods (from which our examples have been taken), are marked by a particularly vivid spirit of independence including a full capacity for being provoking and aggressive: first there is the crisis of negativism and opposition at about the fourth year, and then ten years later there is the crisis of originality at the on-set of adolescence.

These two crises do not present the same characteristics from the point of view considered here. The claim to be independent in the young child is more spontaneous than thought out. It is expressed almost entirely in action, and when the action is interfered with, in emotion, but it is expressed very little in systematic and deliberate thought. On the other hand it aims only to shake off people, parents or other adults in charge. With the young adolescent boy or girl on the contrary, it is the result of reflection. It appears to be premeditated, even calculated; it presents itself as an application of general theories deliberately outrageous or paradoxical; and it aims to shake off not only persons but still more the institutions that these persons represent—the family itself, society itself.

The Adults' Rôle or What Adults Can Do

Not Feel Astonished, but Try to Understand: How are we to advise parents to behave in view

of this inclination in their children? First, they should not be astonished by it, nor consider the case of their own son or daughter exceptional. It is on the contrary very ordinary. They should expect, especially at the beginning of the fourth year and at the end of childhood, to see their children become more difficult to handle, often seized by a spirit of systematic contradiction, withdrawing from the family community in order to seek other companions. They should not interpret this withdrawal as a lack of affection. When the school boy repulses his mother who kisses him in front of a school friend and calls him by pet names, this is not because he loves her less than formerly. It is because he has a vague feeling of humiliation at seeing himself still treated as a baby, especially in the presence of an equal whom he wants to impress. We must accept the fact that our children grow, have less and less need of us, and finally leave us in order to fulfil their own destiny on their own terms. We must keep up, without too much time-lag, with the rhythm of this natural evolution. We must even prepare them little by little to be able to do without us altogether.

Encourage Initiative and the Taking of Personal Responsibility: We must without doubt protect the child, and in order to do this must keep an eye on him, but after a certain age it is bad to make our concern for him too obvious, or to pepper him with negative instructions and prohibitions. It is bad to express too often in his presence our fears for his health, safety, comfort and well-being, so rendering him chicken-hearted and over-sensitive, hungry for a visible protection. It is good on the contrary to allow him to measure himself up against difficulties and even against minor dangers, leaving to him the initiative and the choice of means of overcoming them. This confidence which we show in him draws him closer to us on a sturdier footing, places him to some extent on a footing of equality with us, encourages him to call us to witness, to give us his confidence, while a submissive obedience widens the moral and social gap between the generations.

We must not always make choices for children, though without influencing their choice even indirectly, we should show them exactly what they are responsible for in making the decisions which concern them. This does not mean that we must encourage nor even tolerate their whims,

nor that we should always take advantage of our freedom by showing ourselves indifferent over unimportant details. But we must increasingly allow them to choose according to their own wishes in things which are their own concern.

We must not oversimplify our child's tasks for him, drawing up plans for him in too minute detail. If a girl likes cooking and particularly pastry-making, let her prepare the sweet without interfering at all in her way of doing it. What does it matter if her pudding is not perfect? It will be better next time. And an imperfect accomplishment of her own is morally better than a success due to outside help. This boy likes gardening or doing odd jobs. Let us enable him to satisfy his taste by giving him the money he needs for it. Do not let us interfere with his enterprises unless he expressly asks us to do so, and if he does, do not let us give him any sort of feeling that we are replacing him.

No Aggravating Supervision: Let us take care not to exasperate our children by making personal remarks such as: Stand straight, Don't pull your belt so tight, Button up your jacket, Look where you are going, Mind where you put your feet, Don't swing your arms like that. These remarks may be based on good feeling but when they are repeated twenty times a day, which by the way renders them quite ineffectual, how can we be astonished at the impatient reactions that they provoke? The need for independence, constrained in this way, breaks out into behaviour which is disagreeable for everyone.

Helping Them to Manage Their Own Lives: All education, whether given in the family or at school, aims finally at bringing up free beings who can control themselves. We should, therefore, consider the spirit of independence not as a fault to be combated but as a factor which favours rather than otherwise the adult's work, a characteristic to be used and given direction. The child is not destined to remain all his life in tutelage; if he wants to free himself, he is only anticipating his very near future. Let us try all we can to help him by conceiving the discipline that he receives from outside not as an end in itself but as an apprenticeship for his own moral freedom, which consists, for a reasonable being, in behaving according to the rules of that reason which he discovers within himself, and accepts.

GROUP CONSULTATION FOR PARENTS

On a Case of School Failure led by Doctor Ragu-Frey

Mr. A.: We have a boy who as a small child showed no sign of trouble or peculiarity. When he was old enough to go to primary school he was thought to be an interesting child, but he didn't make any sort of effort. He just drifted along and nobody took any trouble over him at school. I went to see his teacher several times in the hopes that he would take an interest in the child, but all he said to me was: 'I can't help him; he never tries at all.' This teacher left all the children who didn't want to do anything to their own devices.

Mr. B.: I am a teacher and think you must have had dealings with a particularly unsympathetic person. Except for those children who are really mentally retarded—I have five or six such in my class—I consider myself obliged to get some sort of result from every child.

Mr. A.: I had hoped my son's teacher would feel like that. I am the head of my own business, I have to put other people's troubles right. I am sure that if I were a teacher it would be children like my son who would really interest me. During my holidays I do things with him but find this impossible the rest of the time as I am very hard worked and have no free time to give him.

After primary school I sent him to the *Lycée Voltaire*. The first term went very well—he was put on the honours list and they encouraged him; I relaxed my vigilance, but then found he started slacking, the result of which was that he was almost expelled for his laziness—if laziness is the right word. Since the *Lycée* said that they did not want to keep him, I sent him to a coach. There he was in a class with girls and we thought that perhaps things would be easier for him. Doubtless that was a mistake—in any case it was a complete failure. We were sent a fairly scathing report with the terms of which I don't agree at all. It is certain that at this time the child showed signs of difficulty. The report said: '... a restless and lazy child, never does anything with all his might. Mathematics: lazy, messy, confused, doesn't even try to make an effort. Science: a very restless pupil, works irregularly, takes no notice of warnings, etc. In view of his lack of good will we feel obliged to exclude him from this establishment.' After this I thought of sending him to a boarding school so that he could be away from his family where he is spoilt, especially by his mother. So I took him to a Catholic school and, having met the Father Superior, recognized that these gentlemen are full of good will and understanding—though their ideas aren't quite mine. For the first fortnight he got on fairly well, but the second was much less good, and now I have decided to take medical advice. The change has come about slowly and is mainly due to the neglect of those who were put in charge of his general education.

Dr. R-F.: Is he your only child?

Mrs. A.: No, we have a much older girl who works very well and got her School Certificate. She is fourteen years older than her brother.

Dr. R-F.: In fact he is the only boy and the youngest of the family?

Mr. A.: Yes. Another point to remember is that he was born in 1942 during the war, at a time when everything was upset and difficult...

Mrs. A.: He has always been a nervous child. Until he was almost three he hardly slept during the night and sleeping powders didn't help. When he was very small he didn't sleep between feeds. Now he bites his nails and, when he is talking, fidgets with his hands all the time. When we take him out he's like a puppy straining on its leash.

Dr. R-F.: Have you a garden?

Mrs. A.: Yes, we live out near the Bois de Vincennes.

Dr. R-F.: So, without leaving you he can play and enjoy himself? When did you send him to school?

Mrs. A.: He went to a nursery school where he behaved more or less calmly but when he came home he was all over the place.

Dr. R-F.: You have just said something very important, namely, this relative calmness when the child first started school, compared with his restlessness at home. Did nobody ever complain about him at the nursery school?

Mrs. A.: No. Nobody ever said he was restless.

Dr. R-F.: Have any of the mothers here noticed that their children behave differently at home from the way they do at school?

Mrs. C.: I have a child in the nursery school who used to be like that, but he's better now. It's during break that he is wild.

Dr. R-F.: You can't expect a child not to be full of spirits when he comes out of school.

Mr. B.: I teach the top form at my school. I have forty-five pupils, fifteen of whom want to take their certificate and are quite clever enough to do so; fifteen who couldn't pass it at all, and fifteen who don't want to pass it though they could. I take great pains with this last group and press them hard. For a teacher who loves his work it is just this group of children who evoke his chief effort. I think Mr. A. is right... But, Sir, you ought to have come to *L'Ecole des Parents* long ago. When I have a boy who proves troublesome I bring his parents here. That is actually why I am here this evening. I think the ideal child is one who is as ready to work as to play so I'm never sorry to see a child fighting in the playground for I feel he'll work all the better after it.

Dr. R-F.: That's quite right.

Mr. B.: I have advised many parents who have consulted me to get their children into a sports' club, often with very good results. When they go to the swimming bath or the sports' ground their work improves. It's the link between physical activity and intellectual work that gets results. Perhaps if Mr. A's son joined a sports' club he would get a lot of good out of it.

Dr. R-F.: It would certainly offer him chances to succeed.

Mr. A.: Unfortunately he is unstable. He doesn't stick at anything very long. He plays about and is always busy, but has no real interest and ceaselessly changes from one thing to another.

Dr. R-F.: Has he plenty of play things?

Mrs. A.: Not any more. We have taken them almost all from him.

Dr. R-F.: Why have you taken away his toys?

Mrs. A.: Because he gets completely absorbed in play and doesn't think about anything else. He will leave his work in order to play.

Dr. R-F.: He *prefers* play and you *suppress* play?

Mr. A.: We can't let him play all the time.

Dr. R-F.: There's no question of that, but it is difficult to interfere with the play of a child. Mr. B., who is a teacher, has noticed the relationship between the child's enthusiasm for play and his enthusiasm for work. If you take away from a child his opportunities for enjoying his play wholeheartedly he often draws in his horns and no longer wishes either to play or work.

Mr. A.: There is a bowling alley in the *bois*. When he was six he had a set of bowls, but he used to lose them and threw the bowls anyhow.

Dr. R-F.: Did you give the child these bowls so that he could play with his friends or used you to play with him?

Mr. A.: He played with me.

Dr. R-F.: Did you ever try to explain the rules of the game to him, or did you try to teach him to play well?

Mr. A.: He is incapable of doing so.

Dr. R-F.: Yes, thank goodness, he's only a child! Are there any other parents here who have had experience of adults intervening in children's games—for example, building games in which the adults have always built the best house? Parents often go to choose toys and buy exactly the one they themselves would like to play with, or would like to teach their children to become expert at playing. When this is so, it very often happens that the child, when shown how he must play by the grown-up, loses absolutely all interest in the game. Evidently he realizes that he can't do as well as his elder—the distance between his powers and the grown-up's are too great. Has anybody noted that?

Mr. X.: I've noticed exactly the opposite. For example, we bought our little girls (the elder of whom is five) a game of 'Patience' a few months ago. At first we wanted to leave them to make up the rules entirely on their own, saying to ourselves: 'We'll see what happens.' They didn't know what to do with them so either their mother or I had to teach them. Then they became so interested that after a few days they became much better at the game than we had ever hoped.

Dr. R-F.: What you say proves yet again that each case is quite individual. One has to bear in mind the nature of the game and sometimes show the child how to go about it. You taught them the rules of the game but didn't try to show them how much better you can play it than they. We were discussing, a few minutes ago, this father who adores his son—although he blames his mother for loving him too much—who wanted to show his son how *he* threw a ball at bowls. But that is of no interest to the child for he has got his *own* way of throwing the ball; and to throw it badly interests him far more than to throw it nicely like papa.

Mr. A.: I noticed that he did just the same thing with his friends; they told him to buck up and play better when he threw the ball badly.

Dr. R-F.: Has he got some real friends then? Does he bring them home?

Mrs. A.: I don't like him bringing children home. He'd give anything to have someone to play with, but I don't like the children he brings.

Dr. R-F.: Why don't you like them?

Mrs. A.: They come from rather odd families and get everything into a frightful mess.

Dr. R-F.: You thought they were not the sort of company you would wish your son to keep?

Mrs. A.: Yes: they were boys of eleven and twelve who always had a great deal of pocket money. Besides, where we live, there aren't many children for we live rather a long way from Vincennes.

Dr. R-F.: Did anyone ever complain about his behaviour to other children at school?

Mrs. A.: No, he's not rough.

Dr. R-F.: Did you go and fetch him from school or did he come home alone?

Mrs. A.: I went to fetch him when he was little. Since then he has come back alone.

Dr. R-F.: Didn't he come back with his little friends?

Mrs. A.: No, none lived our way.

Dr. R-F.: Did he sometimes get home late?

Mrs. A.: No, he used to get back very punctually on the whole. He used to look in the shop windows for a minute, but that was all.

Dr. R-F.: He never played truant or was any trouble, from the point of view of discipline? You never had to keep an eye on him?

Mrs. A.: Oh no.

Dr. R-F.: And so your only worry was on the day when he brought the report back? Was that the only drama you had?

Mrs. A.: I could hardly call that day dramatic. We did make some comments to him and showed him that he had done wrong—also that it must never happen again.

Dr. R-F.: Has he never done well at lessons since he went to school?

Mrs. A.: No.

Dr. R-F.: When did he learn to read?

Mrs. A.: At six.

Dr. R-F.: That is to say during his first year at school. That isn't bad.

Mrs. A.: He could read at the nursery school.

Mrs. X.: I am a nursery school teacher. We don't teach reading in the kindergarten.

Mrs. A.: I taught his sister both to read and write, but I couldn't teach him because he didn't want to learn.

Dr. R-F.: And yet he learned very easily at the nursery school?

Mrs. X.: At the nursery school we use very direct and lively methods similar to those of Montessori. I believe that is why some children succeed at the nursery school yet fail later on.

Mr. B.: Those methods are rather difficult to apply in a big school with large classes where one is often hampered by the administration and the curriculum. But for a boy like the one we are discussing they would be very good. For example, they would get him to do an enquiry project. They would tell him to go to the Bois Vincennes and look at the animals in the zoo and find out where they came from; notice how they are fed and how much meat they are given. I have a feeling that this boy could be helped and that this sort of thing would interest him.

Dr. R-F.: That is my impression, too. Perhaps you would allow me to point out to you, Mrs. A., that you were able to teach your daughter to read, but not your son. You were not more highly strung or less patient, and you loved this boy just as much, so what happened?

Mrs. A.: If I try to help him a little he says: 'Leave me alone'—so there's nothing more I can do.

Dr. R-F.: And you, Mr. A., have you ever tried to get your boy to work?

Mr. A.: Yes, by giving him some work to do and telling him how to do it; never by helping him explicitly to learn his lessons. For example, when he had to learn to write I gave him a page of pot-hooks to do and he brought it to me when he had finished.

Dr. R-F.: So as soon as he went to school you started examining all his work? As soon as he was in the first form you made him do pot-hooks at home? What does the lady who teaches in a nursery school think of that?

Mrs. Z.: I don't agree with it at all. You can't ask much of a child of six. He already does a great deal of work at school and when he comes home he needs relaxation.

Mr. V.: It is also possible that the methods his father used were not the same as those used by the teacher, and that can create confusion.

Mrs. Z.: Oh yes, that can certainly put a child off.

Mrs. A.: My husband always speaks to him as he would to a much older child. He explains things expecting him to understand at the first go. It's the same with teaching him things. My husband explains certain facts or moralizes to him about things, using words that are too difficult for him to understand at his age. Of course it is very difficult for us. We mean well . . .

Dr. R-F.: Naturally, you are only thinking of one thing, how to help him. Since he is so much younger than his sister he is almost like an only child and all your care is concentrated on him.

Mrs. A.: Evidently. We let him have what he wants.

Dr. R-F.: It seems to me that that could perhaps be the last word?

Mrs. A.: And yet, No. We don't always give in to him. When he was nine my husband bought him an electric train. The child didn't know how to use it and my husband wanted to show him; but he made such a fuss that we took it away from him.

Dr. R-F.: The train was meant for the child, not for you.

Mrs. A.: He was a bit young for it at nine.

Dr. R-F.: And now our time's up. I think that whilst you have been telling me all the things that have happened in this child's life and your own, you must have realized

that you haven't always done what was needed in the efforts you have made for your child.

Mr. A.: Obviously. For example I have already told you that I have just realized I need a medical consultation for the child. Do you think I have made a mistake there?

Dr. R-F.: I don't think there is any question of his being sick. It's just the case of a child born late—in reality an only child—who is very much spoilt by a father and a mother who don't always agree exactly between themselves on the best ways of dealing with him.

Mrs. A.: There is a great deal of truth in what you say.

Dr. R-F.: My prognosis is excellent. The mother is very gentle and the father not. We could perhaps strike a balance by the mother being firmer and the father less severe. All the same it would be a good idea for the child to be brought in to a consultation, not for an illness, but to help with his character problems.

Book Reviews

The Development of National Education in India. K. C. Vyas, M.A., Ph.D. (Vora & Co., Bombay. Rs. 4/-).

In this little book a great deal of information is compressed into a small number of pages. Although Dr. Vyas has planned and written his book as a consecutive story, it also justifies its place on the educational shelf as a work of reference. With the ignorance we in the West commonly share regarding things Indian, I suspect that on most shelves Dr. Vyas' book would fill a serious gap.

The Development of National Education in India may be a somewhat misleading title to Western readers. 'National Education' has come to mean for most of us a—or *the*—national system of education, i.e. a wholly or preponderantly State or State-supported school system extending throughout the national territory. Dr. Vyas uses the term in another sense. 'National education' to him is education arising out of the indigenous culture and serving it; or, to put it another way, Dr. Vyas has surveyed national-minded educational movements in India that have functioned 'independently of the Government and in spite of their frowns'. Such educational efforts, he points out, have 'played a very significant part in Renascent India'.

Historically, this book covers about 150 years, beginning with the missionary schools at the end of the eighteenth century and finishing with the coming of independence. Whilst emphasizing that the aim of the missionaries was not primarily 'education or the spread of Western knowledge, but the spread of Christianity', Vyas does pay tribute to the 'national' service they rendered in writing text-books in the vernacular, writing translations into local tongues and, in general, encouraging their use.

The first educational movement

Vyas describes is the one founded at the beginning of the nineteenth century by Raja Ram Mohan Roy, a spiritual leader and seeker after religious truth, deeply learned in Sanskrit culture but also thoroughly versed in the teachings of Islam and Christianity. The Raja's aim was none less than 'the regeneration of India', which he sought in a judicious fusion of what the West had to offer with the best in the Indian heritage. He was not an educator by profession, but found, of course, that education was one of the necessary means to work towards his goal and thus launched both schools and educational societies and publications.

Succeeding sections of the book tell of other reformers, schools and movements that formed the roots of much of the finest in Indian education today: examples are Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar, Keshub Chunder Sen, David Hare (an early example of the Englishman who 'represented that purely philanthropic sympathy which found its satisfaction in increasing the welfare of the people of India'); the Hindu College of Calcutta, the Anglo-Indian School, Bethune College for women; the Brahmo Samaj, Arya Samaj, servants of India. There follows a chapter on the educational policy of the East India Company, largely negative and showing the need for the more vigorously independence-minded institutions and movements following on the 'First War of Independence' ('Mutiny' to you, Imperial reader), including that of Mrs. Annie Besant. With the turn of the century, 'national education' and political activity became even more closely intertwined, although the great figures that stand out from Dr. Vyas' pages regarded both politics and education as mere parts of a higher and wider activity. Gandhiji was the supreme example, and there is a brief, but illuminating account of his Basic

Education Plan, which is accepted educational policy in India to-day, and which members of the N.E.F. will recognize as pure 'New Education'. The Jamia Millia Islamia under the inspired leadership of Zakir Hussain, Tagore's beautiful Shantiniketan and Shriniketan and other pioneering institutions receive due notice. In a short Conclusion, Vyas dots his i's and crosses his t's and pleads for a great educational effort to build the new India on the good basis laid by these pioneers.

To quote the preface by Dr. B. V. Keskar, 'Dr. Vyas has rendered a distinct service by writing this excellent Treatise.'

Laurin Zilliacus

Compulsory Education in Pakistan. Muhammad Shamsul Huq. (Unesco \$1.25; 6/-; 350 fr.)

This is one of Unesco's Studies on Compulsory Education, in furtherance of the programme for the elimination of illiteracy, designed to show how one principle of universal free and compulsory education is being applied in various parts of the world. It is encouraging to note, from Dr. Muhammad Shamsul Huq's foreword, that teachers in remote village schools are among those whose comments and observations he acknowledges as having greatly assisted him in his task.

The author first sketches the historical background, dealing with education in the Hindu-Buddhist and Muslim eras of Indian history, and then with developments during the British period. The position, down to 1947, was, for various reasons, decidedly better in Punjab than in Bengal. In 1921, for instance, 34,271 boys' primary schools in Bengal had only 42,561 teachers, of whom only 7,973 were trained, and of the others 15,710 had not themselves studied beyond the fourth primary standard. The mean salary varied

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... ..

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from Rs. 8½ per month in Bengal to Rs. 25½ in Punjab. The Bengal primary teachers had never been paid a living wage, and were obliged to regard teaching as only a subsidiary occupation.

The book shows that there are (June 1954) 39,497 primary schools in Pakistan, for a total population of some 75 millions. The total enrolment of children in the primary schools now stands at 3,755,664 as against 3,139,792 in 1947-8. But nearly sixty per cent. of children of school age are still not attending school, and only a little over sixteen per cent. of girls. The wastage, from Class I to Class IV or V, though still unsatisfactorily high, has been distinctly reduced. Poverty and other home circumstances of the parents are also factors. In fact compulsion can neither be universal nor strict, under prevailing conditions. The present literacy rate in Pakistan as a whole is less than fourteen per cent. of the total population.

The total expenditure on primary education, which was about Rs. 32m. in 1947-8 (the year in which Pakistan came into being), rose to nearly Rs. 45m. in 1952-3. The cost of primary education per pupil during the same period rose from Rs. 10 to Rs. 12. For a trained matriculate teacher in E. Bengal the starting salary was, in

1939, Rs. 16; in 1947, Rs. 34½; and in 1951, Rs. 50½. But the 1947 rate had a pre-war value of only Rs. 8½, and the 1951 rate a pre-war value of Rs. 12½. In Punjab, again, and in West Pakistan generally, both pay and prospects are much more favourable.

Of the 92,433 teachers in primary schools 54,413 are now trained. The curriculum has been improved, but is capable of further improvement. There is a lamentable shortage of suitable books the effect of which is enhanced by the fact that though the higher authorities are alive to the need for creative and activity methods at this stage, parents are largely against them, and the attitude of most teachers on this point also needs re-orientation. A good point which emerges is that, though the curriculum may still be too rigid, it is well diversified from province to province. There is no dull uniformity, but each unit is obviously grappling with its problem in an alert and intelligent way. Yet 'not infrequently even some of the inspecting officers who are not over-enthusiastic about the new methods connive at teachers relapsing into the old practices.' Further 'the practice in all provinces of prescribing textbooks for the primary classes indirectly encourages teachers to confine the work to the

textbooks. As a result, there is now a wide divergence between the theory and practice of curriculum development.' There is also still 'a tendency to adapt the primary curriculum not to the needs and interests of the children of that age, but to the requirements of the secondary and higher stages of education . . . This attitude of the teachers at all stages is explained by the fact that the aim of passing a university examination and getting a suitable job still dominates the whole educational system. The attitude is likely to continue until two facts are realized: the first is the psychological fact that the proper development of the child at any given stage implies similar development in the preceding stage and as such, the needs and interests of each stage and not of the following stage should determine the curriculum. The second is the economic fact that Pakistan is a predominantly agricultural country and as such the needs of millions of children in the rural areas should not be subordinated to those of the few children in the urban regions.'

Much, therefore, remains to be done. In considering possible ways of remedying the basic shortage of funds the author observes that 'nearly everywhere most people in the higher income groups are apparently not contributing according to their capacity . . . They seem to escape with only a nominal contribution under the present Compulsory Education Act.' He suggests a suitable addition to the present income tax.

In considering the whole problem, and the progress so far made, all the relevant circumstances must be taken into account. Several of these were adverse. On the other side was the inheritance of a stable administrative system, and the surge and spirit of a new nationalism.

The author has covered more ground than his title indicates, and his enlightened and courageous comprehension of the problems facing Pakistan in this field should bring much of value, interest and encouragement to teachers, administrators, not only in Pakistan itself, but in other countries now faced with the same problems.

A. C. C. Hervey

Comprehensive Schools Today: an Interim Survey by Robin Pedley. With new critical essays by Robin Pedley, H. C. Dent, Harold Shearman, Eric James and W. P. Alexander. (Councils and Education Press. 3/6).

This pamphlet has already made newspaper headlines, and Dr. Pedley is to be congratulated on a most

valuable and timely contribution to the debate on the comprehensive school. His survey is however inevitably limited in scope, and in spite of its suggestiveness cannot do more than indicate possible answers to the many questions we are asking. The fifteen schools considered are of all sizes, ranging from 210 to 1,234 pupils, and differ considerably in origin and in the character of the area they serve, the rural ones owing their existence largely to practical and economic factors, while the urban ones are mostly the outcome of social and political pressure. Nevertheless, certain important results seem to be emerging, which belie the fears often expressed by those unacquainted with what these schools are doing.

First of all, there appears to be no levelling down of standards, and clever pupils do quite as well in their final examinations as they would if they had gone to a grammar school. There may also be some levelling up, although this is less clear, since some Secondary Modern Schools having G.C.E. streams may come to show as remarkable results as those reported from Comprehensive Schools by Dr. Pedley. Again, there is no question of lack of grading or of the absence of the spur of competition. New entrants are either tested on arrival or put into a particular stream on the basis of the 10+ examination, while laggards in the A stream are kept on their toes by fear of being displaced by the cream of the Bs. Re-division into sets for particular subjects also takes place, and recognition is being given to leavers at fifteen, some schools letting them sit for such external examinations as those of the Royal Society of Arts, and others awarding their own certificates.

The bogey of size is not a very real one among the fifteen schools covered, and such a school as that at Holyhead manages to provide excellent courses of the most varied character with only 1,041 pupils on the roll, nowhere near the 2,000 often spoken of as the minimum necessary. Nevertheless, some breaking down into smaller units is clearly needed, and this is being attempted in a variety of ways. Horizontal divisions have been formed into Lower (11-13) and Upper (13-18) School, each with its own quarters and Head, and Birmingham even proposes to create a Middle School (from 13-15) as well. Division into houses is also being tried, but seems too artificial to achieve much, save where each house has its own physical headquarters. A further breakdown into tutorial sets, as advocated by the L.C.C., has come up against many difficulties, although some such smaller grouping would be of great value.

Dr. Pedley finds that the chief weakness of these schools at present lie in the inadequate strength of their sixth forms, a weakness they share with the ordinary Grammar School. He suggests that a better organization might retain the common school until 15, following it by full-time or part-time education for all in a County College, which would thus be able to secure first-class specialist teachers and might become a cultural centre for the neighbourhood.

The survey is completed by five critical essays. Dr. Pedley himself regrets that, in their concern to prove that the new organization retains all the values of the old, these schools have not seized the chance of making certain important educational reforms. He advocates longer periods, of an hour each, to prevent the bitterness of the present system, and wishes to see pupil responsibility spread in a variety of councils and committees as a part of social education, instead of any attempt to ape the old-fashioned prefect system. Mr. Dent remarks that Dr. Pedley does not discuss the social effects of the Comprehensive School, nor its ability to weld its pupils into a classless whole, and points out that its advocates are quite mistaken if they think that such schools will necessarily promote social unity, since many areas are representative of no more than one or two sections of the community. Mr. Shearman is optimistic as to the future and declares that the ferment produced by the Comprehensive School idea is provoking a livelier and more experimental interest in the nature of secondary education than we have had for many years; while Eric James raises many objections to reorganization, the strongest of which is perhaps that it would be a mistake to destroy or absorb many first-class Grammar and Direct Grant schools in the name of an unrealizable equality. The final essay is contributed by W. P. Alexander who argues for a small number of specially selective schools to cater only for the highly intelligent 5 per cent. of an area. Apart from this, he advocates a compromise solution, based on such principles as (1) no decision at 11+ should be final, (2) all schools should prepare pupils for the G.C.E. at both O and A levels, making transfer to another school unnecessary for the late developer; (3) each school should be a cross-section of society.

And so the debate continues. No doubt the final result will be a compromise such as is dear to the Englishman's heart. For it is becoming clear that the practical question at stake is not whether, but how far, a school shall be comprehensive, and the answer

to this is no doubt best determined in reference to each individual school.

Wyatt Rawson

Historical Geography. J. B. Mitchell. (English Universities Press. 10/6).

It seems that the modern geographer must now strive to emulate that fabled bird of classical antiquity which flew backwards, because it was interested not in where it was going, but only where it had been. Miss Mitchell's book is an excellent and much needed introduction to this difficult but fascinating art.

The author is well aware of the prevailing ignorance of her subject and wisely begins with a lucid definition of its scope, and the methods of its study. Historical geography we learn, has less to do with antique voyages of discovery than the anonymous artist who decorated the paper jacket of this book with quaint but irrelevant galleons imagined. Simply put, it consists of the geographical study of any period in the past for which a roughly ordered and dated sequence is established in human affairs. Its methods, the questions it asks, are fundamentally the same as those of the contemporary geographer, but the materials used are very often supplied by the historian or archaeologist. After a useful survey of these and other possible sources of data which forms the second chapter of the book, Miss Mitchell devotes most of the remainder to a series of independent yet related studies of important phases in the development of the geography of this country. The first of these deals with

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the arrival and distribution of the successive waves of invaders who go to make up the major elements of our population to-day; a fascinating study, which causes one to wonder not that assimilation has gone so far but that it is not yet complete. The next two studies are concerned with the development of our farms and villages, and then somewhat later—exactly how late is still not known—of our towns. There follow two complementary yet antithetical studies of the changing face of our countryside under the impact of such forces at the clearance of new land, the adoption of new methods, and the still all too little understood enclosure movement; and of the changing situation and nature of our towns with the continuous development of our industries. Finally and rightly comes a consideration of the historical geography of our transport and communications, which more than any other single factor have influenced and been influenced by the all round geographical development of this country. In a brief epilogue (it is hardly fair to call it a chapter) Miss Mitchell discusses with admirable lucidity the place of her subject in the geographical synthesis, and leaves the reader with a clear impression of the practical value of the subject, which lies in the fact that 'in the conditions of the past is to be found so often the impetus that is still at work shaping and even initiating present geographical patterns.'

I find it impossible to accept Miss Mitchell's dogmatism when she states that 'the historical geographer is a geographer first, last and all the time'. On the evidence of her book he must be a very considerable historian too; and as the author herself points out, the historical geographer is almost 'entirely preoccupied' with the 'vulgar works of man'. To a considerable extent the historical geographer is trying to answer questions which both geographer and historian may legitimately ask, and this subject should, I feel, serve as a reminder that things are not as simple as we would wish, and that our man-made intellectual pigeon-holes do not correspond in fact to any 'natural' divisions of knowledge. But this is my only criticism, and it is a small one. Most historians and geographers will enjoy this book, and almost all can learn a lot from it, for it is a pioneer work in this field. Almost nothing has been written previously on this subject outside academic journals or detailed and expensive local studies. This volume is packed with information, yet very readable; it is provided with excellent maps and diagrams and a useful bibliography; there are valuable suggestions for further work which the

reader might like to undertake for himself, and the whole is enlivened with an occasional touch of a fine, dry academic wit.

R. A. Chaplin

'Renaissance' Italic Handwriting. W. Worthy. (Published by Chatto and Windus. Teacher's Book 2/8 : Books 1, 2, 3 and 4 at 1/8 each).

These copy books, written to introduce the now fashionable italic handwriting to infants and juniors, are very reminiscent of Marion Richardson's *Writing and Writing Patterns* for the primary school child, though Mr. Worthy's books are not so artistically produced. Since the author has drawn on Marion Richardson's ideas without, apparently, fully understanding her beautifully worked out scheme for teaching children, and since he criticises her writing, I cannot but compare the format of their books.

In Mr. Worthy's Book I for infants, the letters are taught as separate static shapes and the patterns bear little relation to the letter shapes he is teaching. Infants, as we know, see words as complete shapes. They must not be confused by pages of words consisting of unjoined letters badly spaced. The gaps between the letters go against a child's natural sense of rhythm and in all good cursive writing, rhythm is most important. The author does not appear to have studied the basic principles of teaching children to write and, as writing is the one craft we must all learn, it is important to introduce children to the best from the very beginning, for what is first taught is not easily forgotten.

Marion Richardson studied the child's natural graphic movements and love of rhythm and developed a handwriting from the Roman alphabet, joining the letters easily and naturally. Her handwriting is also a wonderful foundation for italic writing and formal lettering if it should be needed after the primary school stage. It is a practical cursive writing for modern tools and can be written at the highest possible speed and read as easily as print. Its simplicity and flowing rhythm are aids to speed and beauty.

Mr. Worthy states that one need not be a skilled writer in order to teach the italic writing, but so many children retain the image of the written word that an unskilled teacher must be a handicap. A teacher *must* perfect his own skill on the blackboard, and wherever he writes for the child his 'copy' must be good. As I have said before, what is first taught is usually remembered, so it is a pity to instil a style which does not link naturally and

easily. Mr. Worthy's 'Renaissance' writing certainly does not do this and he does not convince me that the italic is suitable for the modern infants' and junior child's everyday handwriting.

A. K. Hill

Practice in Basic Arithmetic. F. J. Schonell. (Oliver and Boyd. Teacher's Book 8/6 : Books 1, 2 and 3 at 1/6 each).

This book commends itself in the following ways:

1. The evidence for all conclusions is well documented, and broadly-based upon research from New Zealand, Scotland, Australia, America and Dr. Schonell's own extensive experience.

2. It keeps to the letter of its title—it gives Practice in Basic Arithmetic and has nothing to do with Reading, while Writing is kept to an absolute minimum. In order to ensure that the children concentrate on the Arithmetic, Dr. Schonell has some interesting devices to offer, among them that children should *trace* the sums from the book. However, if this is to be done I think the type should be larger and bolder.

3. The way in which each difficulty is isolated and analysed down to its elements and then treated, first in isolation, then in combination.

4. The Introduction of the Time element—e.g. 'see how many you can do in eight minutes' and so on—a much needed and rarely found constituent in Arithmetic text books. (My personal view is that speed and accuracy are more desirable than ability to compute at great length.)

5. It recognizes the need for success, particularly for the backward child, and provides means of ensuring it.

6. Progress is by very small, well-defined steps, and the material is so arranged that, with proper use, the foundations are well and truly laid before the superstructure is raised.

I should like to commend the use of this book for preliminary and parallel study in conjunction with existing text books throughout the school.

Raymond Maule

Know Your Numbers. J. B. Palframan. (House of Grant: Glasgow. Teacher's Copy 1/3. Pupil's Copy 9d.).

This book appears to be based on Schonell without acknowledgement and without understanding. The author commits the cardinal sin of trying to teach at least four things at once. Thus, in the first exercise, he introduces two ways of writing down a sum and two of the most difficult zero computations. Confusion is worse confounded

at a later stage when he gets on to subtraction.

The pupil's book—a printed affair—is a luxury far beyond the means of a 24/- capitation allowance.

Conclusion: There are an awful lot of people trying to cash in on someone else's ideas.

Raymond Maule

Speeding into Space. Marie Neurath. (Max Parrish. 6/- boards, 7/6 cloth).

'A Thousand Times Farther than Ever Before', 'Stepping Out into Space', 'When a Man will Weigh Nothing at All'—these are three of the eighteen topic-headings under which Marie Neurath makes conceivable the fascinating possibilities of space travel. A beautifully produced book, this, abounding with illustrations so colourful and so stimulating, and set out in typescript no less appealing. Both pictures and text have been carefully examined by a founder-member of the British Interplanetary Society.

With a teacher who is as interested in the theme as are his pupils in Dan Dare and space-ships and the Martians, *Speeding Into Space* will provide many hours of happy, purposeful activity.

A. A. Bloom

Advances in Understanding the Adolescent. The Home and School Committee of the E.N.E.F. 3/6.

The recent eruption of Teddyism is but one further symptom of adolescent emotional malaise, bringing to general notice the problems inherent in adolescence and intensified by misguided and misconstrued childhood conditioning. How to ease the inherent difficulties and remove the conditioning causes has been the bane of psychologists for many a decade.

Advances in Understanding the Adolescent was first published in 1938 to disseminate valuable information on these problems and to give guidance to the perplexed. Since then it has sold 30,000 copies. Now, owing to the continuous demand, a new and revised edition has just been produced. Not only have the original articles been thoroughly overhauled, but new contributions by Dr. Macalister Brew on *Away from Work* and by Dr. Cora Tenen on *The Change from School to Work* have been added. The Study Group Outlines—so helpful for stimulating discussion—have, of course, been retained.

Within the small compass of 120 pages fifteen contributors, each one a

specialist in her or his own field of educational or medical activity, consider different aspects of the main theme—how can we get to understand the adolescent and, understanding, rightly meet, answer, and help to solve the many problems so vital to him? In this method of approach there must be overlapping and repetition, but these seem to add importance to stated postulates and reasoned conclusions, while the total effect is one of unexpected integration. In no article does sympathy deteriorate into sentimentality, nor does deliberately simple expression descend to patronage.

I should like to know that all training college students were nurtured on this book; I should like to have a copy made available to all parents, together with its companion volume *Advances in Understanding the Child*. Then might the implications of the Biblical proverb, correctly translated, 'Bring up a child in his own way and when he is old he will not depart from it' be fully appreciated. Then might the adolescent find peace.

A. A. Bloom

John and the Chess Men. Helen Weissenstein. (Phoenix House. 9/6).

Alice, so she told the White Queen, was exactly seven and a half years old. Many people nowadays think chess far too difficult a game for a child so young, but this is a mistaken idea: master chess is a profound intellectual

exercise, and running five miles is a severe physical one, but a child can enjoy a game of chess as much as a race across the playground. The laws of chess are not difficult, but set out in a list they look formidable, and very dull. This book, by a player of national prominence in the U.S.A., provides a simple and attractive introduction to the game, in the form of a story.

John is a boy whose recovery from a serious injury is delayed by his listlessness and boredom with an invalid's life. By chance, he meets a pair of twins, chess enthusiasts, who teach him to play; this new interest sets him on the way to recovery, and in return he clears the twins of a charge of cheating in a tournament. The story holds the reader's interest, and the author has very skilfully fitted in all the laws of chess without resorting to any tedious lists. The fundamentals are emphasized and repeated, while, on the other hand, even such relatively obscure points as the use of clocks and the 'fifty-move' rule are duly mentioned. Examples include three complete games (woven into the story) and several additional positions, all illustrated by diagrams. (Nevertheless, a board and men should be supplied to any child reading the book!)

The author does not mention (perhaps her name is sufficient reminder) that girls also can play chess; girls who will not read a book intended primarily for boys will have to learn the game from their brothers.

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NEWS AND NOTES

ENGLISH SECTION—ANNUAL REPORT, 1954

THE year just ending has been a strenuous year for the Council and its sub-committees. This is due mainly to three causes: our work in connection with Parent-Teacher co-operation has been expanding; the Education Committee, in response to a number of requests addressed to the Fellowship, has answered new calls; and the Council and Executive Committee have been examining several questions of an organizational or representational character.

In the field of home and school, a very successful county rally was held in Devon last June in co-operation with the Local Education Authority. Some 400 parents and teachers, from all parts of the county, came to Exeter to hear Miss M. Brearley talk on *The Child at Home and in School*. Miss Brearley's address was closely related to the film *Shyness*, by which it was preceded, and it was clear from the questions and animated discussion which followed—and which continued over a buffet tea long after the meeting was officially closed—that her audience had received from her in full measure something of which they had evidently stood in great need. The success of this rally has led to a request for another one in 1955. This is already being planned, and we are in touch with other local authorities with whose help we hope to arrange similar meetings in other parts of the country.

In addition to this kind of work, members of the Home and School Sub-Committee have visited P.T.A.s in the London area, and the News-Letter, which I mentioned in last year's Report, has become an established and evidently welcome termly publication. We have found, moreover, that other Sections of the N.E.F. are publishing similar letters—notably in Germany and in South Africa—and exchanges of these letters are being arranged.

EDUCATION COMMITTEE

Besides assisting the Home and School Sub-Committee, on which many of its members sit, the Education Committee has had a number of other concerns. In the spring, the E.N.E.F. was invited by the King George's Jubilee Trust to assist it in its Enquiry into the influences 'good and bad, intended and unintended', operating on young people in England between the ages of five and twenty. This task the Council remitted to the Education Committee which considered the broad outlines of the problem, before setting up a small *ad hoc* committee to prepare a memorandum for submission to King George's Jubilee

Trust. We have reason to believe that the memorandum was of considerable service to the Trust.

Another enquiry in which English Section members have taken part—in conjunction with International Headquarters—is concerned with the Turquet-Alcock Report on Attitude Change in Teachers. This Report is being studied by an *ad hoc* committee, under the chairmanship of Professor J. W. Tibble, with a view to discovering how best some of its findings may be applied in the training of teachers. The Section has also been associated with International Headquarters in bringing together at Chichester last Easter a number of the Fellowship's Group Leaders and potential leaders in the arts. One of the results of this conference was that we had the happy combination of Mrs. Eva Faithful and Miss Irene Britton in the conduct of the Movement Group at our Summer Conference at Rolle College.

This Conference, which had in addition to Movement, a group in Spoken French led by Mrs. B. R. Biggs, a Local Studies group led by Miss A. E. Adams, and a Painting group under Mrs. Jeannie Cannon, also broke new ground by experimenting with discussion by the working groups of a conference topic—*The Rôle of the Teacher and the Rôle of the Pupil in Learning*. This innovation was not generally judged to have been entirely successful, but the conference was considered by all who attended it to have provided a valuable and enjoyable experience, the newly included groups being particularly welcomed. In its constant search for effective conference techniques, the Committee has evolved a new pattern of activity and discussion for its 1955 Summer Conference, which will be held in Derbyshire from the 19th to the 28th August. Two working groups in the arts will be provided, as well as three groups which will discuss important educational issues. One of these is the Comprehensive School, and we are fortunate in having as leader of this group Dr. R. Pedley of Leicester, who has recently completed a survey of the fifteen existing Comprehensive Schools.

In its efforts to bring industrialists and educationists into closer association, the Education Committee planned two events—a dinner and discussion in London, at which a number of industrialists were invited to meet our Council, and a conference in Exeter, arranged in co-operation with the Institute of Education there, at which Mr. W. Brown, one of our Vice-Presidents, and Mr. David Jordan were to have spoken on *Authority in Industry and in Education*. At the

dinner, many of the difficulties in bringing industrialists and educationists into understanding with each other were revealed, and these difficulties were underlined at Exeter where the response to the conference invitation was so poor that it was decided to cancel the meeting. The lessons of these experiences are being studied by the Committee, and renewed attempts will be made to form a bridge between education and industry.

COUNCIL AND EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

Three important matters have faced the Council and Executive Committee in 1954. First came the invitation from Education Services, to which I referred last year, to associate more closely with that body. It was suggested that the E.N.E.F. might, by becoming an incorporated association, act as a Trustee to Education Services, or alternatively that we might appoint a personal trustee. The legal implications of these moves were studied, and on the advice we received it was decided that it would be unwise for the E.N.E.F. to become an incorporated body, but that it could only be advantageous to it to appoint a personal trustee to Education Services. It was therefore decided to invite Mr. David Jordan to fill this office, and it is with great pleasure that I record his ready acceptance of the invitation and the warm welcome accorded him by the Council of Education Services. Thus one more step has been taken in linking together two associations with similar objectives. I should like to take this opportunity of expressing once more the E.N.E.F.'s warm appreciation of the interest which members of Education Services continue to take in it, and of the financial support its Council so generously accords our work.

In the course of the year the E.N.E.F. received a much valued invitation from the United Kingdom National Commission of Unesco to appoint a representative on the Commission. It will, I feel sure, be a great pleasure to members to know that our Council has appointed Mr. James Hemming in response to that invitation, so that we now have an official representative to support Mr. Raymond King who has for so long been a distinguished member of the U.K. Commission.

The general increase in the work of the Fellowship, both in England and internationally, faced the Council and Executive with an organizational problem. This has been most happily solved by the appointment of Mr. James Porter as Honorary Secretary of the Education Committee, and of Mrs. Porter as Honorary Secretary of the Home and School Sub-Committee, with a consequent reduction in the amount of minuting and correspondence falling upon the Secretary, and with some reduction in the Section's expenditure.

Finance continues to be a source of anxiety to the Council, as it seems most unlikely that a Ministry grant will be received next year. This year we received £150, with an intimation that we should be well advised to regard it as the last payment. It will be remembered that when the grant was first made six years ago, it was to be for a limited time, and on a diminishing scale. It is evident that we must look to other sources for an increase in income—first to an enlargement of membership, and it seems likely that this can be achieved by the establishment of more Fellowship Circles similar to that started at Dudley by Mr. David Jordan, and described by him in the November *New Era*. It is encouraging that several members have undertaken to try to start similar circles. It is important that as many as possible should be established early in 1955.

Another source of revenue lies in covenanted subscriptions. We are still far short of the possible maximum in this respect, and I would urge members, especially those—and they are a majority—who pay their annual subscription by Bankers' Order, to complete a covenant forthwith. Those who pay income tax at the standard rate add nothing to their burden by covenanting their subscriptions, and almost double its worth to us.

In our efforts to help International Headquarters we are, in concert with other Sections, trying to obtain a few World Members in England who will pay an annual subscription of £10 10s. A proportion of this is retained by the Section, so any member who becomes, or who obtains, a World Member at this subscription directly benefits the E.N.E.F. as well as International Headquarters. The aim is to obtain thirty such subscribers in England—surely not an impossible goal. I am pleased to be able to report that we have already several such members, three of whom pay their subscriptions under covenant.

BRANCHES

Three Branches have been active during the year. *London* held several Authors' Meetings,

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at which authors of the New Education Book Club spoke to members.

Leicester reports an increase in membership, and two valuable meetings with Parents' Associations. At one of these meetings Miss Gilvary spoke of her work in an Infants' School organized on family lines; at the other Mr. James Hemming posed the question *Has Education Lost its Way?* Another meeting attracted a number of local councillors, when Dr. R. Pedley spoke on Comprehensive Schools. The Branch has continued its policy of having student contributions to the 'open' session of the Annual General Meeting, which this year was held at the College of Domestic Science where members heard of the many-sided courses followed by students. The Summer Meeting took the form of a visit to Repton School.

The *Cambridge Branch* reports two visits—one to the Field Study Centre at Flatford Mill, the other to Colchester. In September a Musical Evening was held—so successfully that another is planned for next autumn. At the November meeting Mr. R. A. Dare, Educational Psychologist to Cambridge Education Committee, spoke on *The Educational Psychologist in the Service of the Schools*. Future plans include talks on *The Place of Memory in the Education of the Child*, *Reading for Interest, Enjoyment and Information*.

INTERNATIONAL INTERESTS

Our work in the international field has been well maintained. In February I had the privilege of representing the Fellowship at the Conference of Non-Governmental Organizations at Unesco House, Paris, and last month I revisited Germany to lecture to Teacher Training Colleges, Schools and Groups of teachers in Niedersachsen. At the end of my tour I was entertained at Frankfurt by the Secretary of the German N.E.F. when we discussed matters relating both to the next meeting of Section Representatives, which will probably be held at Weilburg/Lahn at the end of July, 1955, and to the German Section Conference which will follow it. I have since received an invitation from the German Section for a member of the English Section to lead a group at its Conference next year. Liaison has also been maintained with the Dutch Section Secretary who entertained me on my way to Germany so that we could discuss the 1956 N.E.F. Mental Health Conference which is to be held in Utrecht. From Australia we had Mr. Donald McLean with us in England for most of the year, and we have recently heard that Mr. Maslin from Tasmania will be in England during 1955. We shall therefore be able to arrange a lecture tour for him in this country, as his passage money has been met from other sources.

Predominant among our international interests has been the Second Meeting of N.E.F. Section Representatives held in Brussels last July, again under the skilled chairmanship of Mr. Ben Morris, with Mr. James Hemming representing the E.N.E.F. This meeting proved quite as valuable as that held at Copenhagen in 1953. Its Agenda included the N.E.F. Mental Health Programme with special reference to the 1956 Conference and Parent Education; International Understanding; future meetings of Section Representatives; and a programme of work which N.E.F. Sections might follow if they wished.

Recommendations from this Meeting, since accepted by International Headquarters Guiding Committee, included: a suggestion that pioneer members of the Fellowship be invited to meet the Section Representatives at the next meeting in 1955 so that the philosophy of the new education could be reviewed in the light of changing circumstances; that after 1955, meetings be held bi-annually to alternate with International Conferences; that Sections should be asked to work on the topic *The Education of Teachers* in preparation for the 1955 Meeting; and that Sections should work on aspects of Mental Health in Education in readiness for the 1956 Conference.

CONCLUSION

This Report endeavours to outline the main work of the past year. It also foreshadows some of the tasks of the future. It records hard work on the part of the officers of our Association—Mr. James Hemming, our retiring Chairman; Mr. Alex Bloom, Chairman of the Education Committee and of its sub-committee on Home and School; and Mr. W. Griffith, our Honorary Treasurer—and by committee members as well as by others working in a personal capacity. It shows that there is equally hard work ahead. I should like to end this Report by expressing my personal thanks to all these friends, and to those other friends who work with me in the office. It is from this working in fellowship, whether amongst our total membership, in Committee, or at the office that our strength as an organization derives, and it is to this that we look forward with confidence for the accomplishment of the tasks of 1955.

J. B. ANNAND, *Secretary*

ERRATUM

In the article *Creative Writing in a Secondary Modern School* published in the February issue, the author was described as Senior Mistress. The Senior Mistress at St. George-in-the-East Secondary Modern School is Miss R. Eidinow and we wish to apologise for our mistake.—ED.

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

THE TEACHER AND THE MALADJUSTED CHILD

Leonard Bloom, B.Sc. Hons.

IN this journal in December 1950, William Walsh remarked in his *Tact in the Classroom* that '... too often ... the young teacher approaches his class, a number of discrete and bewilderingly different personalities, with a set of categories, a handful of abstractions, more remarkable for rigidity of outline than richness of content, and is baffled and frustrated by its active unwillingness to be fitted in. The gleaming mackerel refuse to be netted.' If this is true of a teacher in a school the pupils of which are assumed to be emotionally and socially well-adjusted, how much more acute must be the difficulties of a teacher who has to cope with maladjusted boys or girls in a generally 'normal' class or who teaches in a school specially for maladjusted children?

The well-trained teacher to-day is aware (intellectually, at least) of the broad outlines of the psychology of child development, and the many teachers graced with a sense of vocation and a flair for understanding children have a deeper, intuitive feeling for the hidden conflicts which torment and excite the maladjusted child and which, inevitably, affect his behaviour in the classroom and his academic performance. Indeed, the teacher is often the first observer outside the family to try to handle the maladjusted child and to suspect that Albert's acute shyness or Beryl's stammer, Charles' fidgety obstreperousness or David's inability to manage mathematics is an overt sign of an unconscious emotional problem. A teacher with no deep knowledge of psychology, or with no intuitive awareness of his pupil's home and social stresses and strains (especially if he teaches in one of the many grossly overcrowded and under-staffed schools) may easily fail to realize that undesirable aspects of a child's behaviour in the school are really danger-signals or cries of distress and not common naughtiness, trouble-making or idleness.

It is out of the question to offer any teacher a ready-made 'Teacher's Guide to the Maladjusted Child'; this article must be more like the sketchiest of sketch maps than an ordnance survey.

The first difficulty with which the teacher has to come to grips is that of the boy who is a 'disciplinary' trouble in class. He may or may not be overtly rebellious, disobedient, obstinate, always ready to rag about and to incite his fellows to rag; he may be the no less awkward boy who is dumbly insolent, lazy, of whom the teacher feels sure that he has adequate intelligence which he is wasting. All 'normal' boys are a nuisance in school once in a while and, of these, no more need be said. Continuity, consistency and marked regularity of disciplinary problems is almost always symptomatic of latent or existent maladjustments. The boy who *can be relied upon* to rag or to be as cheeky as he dares, and the like, or who has periods of alternating very good and very bad behaviour, is highly likely to be in need of skilled individual attention and care.

The most frequent causes of this behaviour are well known. Rebellion and aggression against adults may be a reaction against or an attempt at covering up emotional, social or family frustration and anxiety; this may be a simple reaction against an excessively severe and rigid parent or the child's way of protesting against an intolerable home situation in which rows, quarrels, verbal violence and emotional tension are the climate of his world. Further, the child may be able to forget his family tempests only by temporarily creating an energetic counter-diversion (as it were) at school. Less easy to understand are the children whose unconscious, neurotic sense of guilt leads them to court punishment by behaving in an anti-social way, and those whose insecurity and neglect at home leads them to seek attention to satisfy their thwarted desire to feel wanted. Unfortunately, this latter child, reacting

to an unsatisfactory emotional situation, all too often reacts in a way that his society finds unsatisfactory; by an aggressive, compulsive seizing of the limelight, which is the only way he has ever known, and into which an element of punishment-seeking is sometimes to be found.

Occasionally, a teacher may lament that he (or she) simply *cannot* handle some child. To Mr. Smith, David is inattentive and rebellious; to Mrs. Jones, he is no bother, but she finds Eric as trying as Mr. Smith finds him quiet and willing. This emotionally-tinged attitude to the teacher may be in no way the result of the teacher's handling of the child; it may be the result of identification or 'projection'. By the former the child (while unaware of it) identifies, equates Mr. Smith with his hated or feared stepfather, or with his well-loved father; the child projects on to poor Mr. Smith the animus he bears against his unpleasant step-father while perhaps projecting on to the no less unsuspecting Mrs. Jones his stifled affection for his mother. These attitudes are extended to the teacher's subjects, so that the child may be as irrationally antipathetic to Mathematics as he is enthusiastic about French, thus posing the Mathematics teacher a problem which no reasoning or orthodox pedagogic approach can be expected to solve.

Less directly obvious are peculiar types of bad spelling and illegibility: the latter may, of course, be the result of the poor teaching of motor habits, repressed left-handedness or an undiagnosed cross-lateralism, but it is not uncommonly an expression of the child's chaotic inner turmoil and his unconscious reluctance to reveal conflicts, fears or feelings of guilt. Bad spelling is normally the result of bad teaching or bad learning—auditory-visual difficulties—but there are, nevertheless, psycho-pathologically bad spellers, whose errors show a clear pattern or trend. I once taught Frank and George, whose eccentric spelling would have excited E. E. Cummings' admiration: Frank consistently had trouble with words beginning with 'B', and George found 'M' words difficult. In these very simple cases it was found that for Frank 'B' was for 'Brother' whom he hated and of whom he was bitterly jealous. George's association with 'M' was 'Mother', but his mother was a step-mother who hated and rejected him whilst favouring her own children. The bad speller is often the bad talker, and the stammerer or stutterer betrays his inner anxiety.

WHEN the maladjusted child is also highly intelligent (as are the boys at Otto L. Shaw's school for residential grammar-school education and psychological treatment of 45 boys of superior intelligence who have difficulties of emotional and social adjustment) the teacher has to use even greater skill and subtlety than where he is teaching the child of average intelligence. This type of child will often try to avoid the monotony of routine work, such as the learning of a skill or technique, parts of verbs, formulae . . . though he will grasp the point of some argument or lesson with no difficulty. Henry will understand perfectly what you are getting at, when you show him the tricky methods of solving Quadratic Equations, but he will *not* work methodically through dozens of straightforward practice examples. To try to force him to acquire the necessary care, accuracy and knowledge of detail will probably lead to sullen boredom and passive refusal to co-operate. This is no mere eccentricity of the intelligent, but is a peculiarity of the maladjusted child. Routine, or any automatic intellectual activity, allows the child's unconscious (or conscious) problems to make themselves known to him; therefore, he may object to routine learning because the 'day dreams' it permits the normal child become, in his mind, day 'nightmares'.

This break-through of his inner conflicts and fears into the child's conscious (or pre-conscious) life causes two further phenomena which hinder or halt the success of teaching. Conflict in the mind may directly interfere with normal learning processes because of the element of quasi-obsessional perseveration that conflict engenders: we adults tend to harp on our difficulties and troubles, so taking our minds off other matters. How much more must the child do this, with his smaller control of his intellect and his emotions. Connected closely with this element of perseveration is the analogy of a 'leakage' of emotional energy. Where much of the maladjusted child's mental energy is devoted to a barren consideration of his parents' quarrels, or his suspected illegitimacy, we may expect that he will have proportionally less energy to devote to his lessons and he will appear to be—as, indeed, he is—pre-occupied. More rarely, the converse occurs: the child flees from his inner conflicts into a hectic interest in his lessons, almost as an unstable adult tries to drown his malaise in alcohol.

A reserved child can be a perfectly normal child: there is not necessarily any clinical abnormality about the introvert, but one indication of a latent maladjustment is an extreme degree of shyness and introversion and an intense unwillingness or inability to join group lessons, games, discussions, drama and the like activities. This is understandably the overt aspects of anxiety and reluctance to run the risks of social contact, but what of the converse, the over-extraverted child who joins and is to the fore in all group activity? The over-extravert child, too, is embarrassingly anxious and he cannot bear to be out of social activity because of his fear of feeling left out, of feeling as rejected in the classroom as he has felt himself to be at home.

The unstable, shy, introverted child is nearly always so costive emotionally that he is unable and unwilling to commit himself by expressing an opinion, writing an essay or composition, painting a picture or tackling a problem, and cannot make the social and personal advances or face the possible criticisms or rebuffs which contact with the teacher or his fellows involves. Behind this lurks the suspicion, anxiety and guilt that impels all extreme a-social and anti-social behaviour. This child's most frequent scholastic symptom is that of being unable to write . . . at length or at all—and why should he? He is frightened that he might give himself away, he might reveal to the reader some part of himself that he would prefer to keep hidden.

The naughty, difficult child who restlessly seeks novelty, excitement and distraction, and is a disciplinary problem in addition to producing careless and inaccurate work, may perhaps be bored by, or rebelling against, his being in a social group from the intelligence, social-class norm of which he is far away. Henry, I.Q. 160, came to Red Hill School heralded by a school report which said that he was insolent, disobedient, lazy and retarded in all his lessons except 'free' composition. At Red Hill, Henry was found to have a very high I.Q., far above the norm of the elementary school which he was attending previously, and to be a widely read and witty boy of 11, eager to learn and a pleasure to teach when in a class the average I.Q. of which was little below his.

At Red Hill School (in August 1953), the mean I.Q. was 132.5, S.D. 12 and there were then:

<i>Number of Boys</i>	<i>I.Q. Range</i>
6	110 to 120
17	120 to 130
11	130 to 140
7	140 to 150
2	150 to 160
2	160 to 170

Since August 1953, the lower I.Q. groups have lessened and the higher have increased—a policy that is being methodically encouraged—and that the applications for admissions for boys of high I.Q. exceeds 100 a year is some indication of the gravity of the problem of placing the maladjusted highly-intelligent boy.

WHAT then must be done by teachers in ordinary schools who want to guard against exacerbating unwittingly the distress of a maladjusted child? I can but draw another sketch map and refer the interested reader to Anna Freud's *Psycho-Analysis for Parents and Teachers* and to A. S. Neill's many books.

The teacher who is alert to discover the child with an acute speech defect, a 'tic' or 'spasm', or a constant expression of anxiety or aggression, will find little difficulty in accepting that such a child probably needs skilled psychological care and attention. Less obvious are the children who are persistently and consistently inattentive, disobedient, slack or careless, and who react with excessive indifference or excitement and agitation against the conventional methods of punishment, praise or blame. A second characteristic of the maladjusted child is his exaggerated emotional reactions; be they an exaggerated over-excitement, anger or temper, or an almost hysterical remoteness akin to adult hysteria. The teacher should be encouraged by the knowledge that he is the vanguard of the mental-health child guidance services, and that he often has a prestige that can be of the greatest value in persuading a parent who is afraid, ignorant or uncomprehending that his child needs to be helped or examined at the Child Guidance Clinic by the educational psychologist or psychotherapist. An able and understanding teacher may do much to offer a child in his school work the kudos, satisfaction, sense of achievement and encouragement that he needs in attractive and worth-while lesson-work; he can no less help the child by avoiding crude and thoughtless discouragement and an over-rigid

and censorious discipline. In the words of Michael Balint in this Journal, May 1951, 'the avowed aim (of new teaching methods) . . . has been to adapt the teaching to the child, in contrast to the old method where the child was expected to adapt himself to the teaching.' The modern emphasis on Art, Games, Drama, Puppets, 'Free Composition', and similar lessons, allows the child to let off emotional steam and (though he does not realize it) to let slip any clues to an underlying conflict which is causing his overt maladjustment.

A multitude of tasks fall to teachers and many may have to struggle to teach intelligently, interestingly and usefully in difficult and unsatisfactory conditions. But the child spends (in term time) a large part of his waking day in the school and there can be no way to avoid his carrying into the school his problems and miseries from outside it, if he is one of the unfortunates with crippling or laming emotional, social or familial problems. The teacher, trained as he is to handle children, has a large power to help lessen the load of childish misery and its resultant waste.

A NEW APPROACH TO PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Charles Neil, Principal of The Isobel Cripps Centre

PHYSICAL education is really the study of the management of the body, though when the term physical education—or P.T., as we used to know it when we were at school—is used, it recalls a series of rather violent movements done by a whole class in unison. The modern study of the management of the body is fundamentally different from this and covers all that is meant by the terms posture, movement and tension—including 'nervous tension'.

Like most subjects, physical education has undergone a process of evolution. It probably began with the professional strong-man and weight-lifter, then took the form of drill in the army and Swedish drill in the schools, but its character has greatly changed with a fuller understanding of the nature and importance of posture, though even to-day many of the old 'physical jerks' are still performed, even amongst people who should know better.

Let us consider the terms posture, movement, tension and 'nervous tension'.

Posture is a word often used more or less synonymously with the word 'position' although its physiological meaning is the relationship of part to part of the body. Posture is a pattern of action; it is a constant, regardless of position or movement. All movement begins and ends in posture. Posture is therefore fundamental to movement, and the re-education of mal-co-ordinated movement cannot be satisfactorily undertaken without dealing with the underlying posture.

Movement may be co-ordinated or mal-co-ordinated. Co-ordinated movement is based on

sound posture, obeys sound mechanical principles, and is graceful and efficient, whilst mal-co-ordinated movement is based on poor posture, is mechanically unsound, awkward, ugly and wasteful of energy.

Tension is usually spoken of as something to be avoided like 'blood pressure'. This leads to much popular illusion about relaxation. Correct tension is observed when a movement is made with the effort exactly proportionate to the task in hand, no more, no less, and this can only be achieved if the movement is well co-ordinated and based on good posture. It follows, then, that relaxation should not be considered as a state of flop or as a total absence of tension, a state which cannot in fact be achieved and the subject remain alive.

Many of the popular methods of relaxation exercises may lead to harmful results, based, as they often are, on the idea that tension is bad and therefore to be avoided. The only satisfactory way of achieving relaxation is through well co-ordinated movement.

'Nervous tension'—a very vague term—would seem to be muscular tension resulting from or accompanied by emotional disturbance and psychological conflict. The condition in which this kind of tension can be most readily observed is that of anxiety. Anxiety is a normal hazard of everyone's life and when experienced for sufficient reason can be considered to be biologically sound, making for a more alert state, but the chronically anxious person, or worrier, is not like this. His anxiety is not only chronic but disproportionate, and undoubtedly subjects the whole person to

stress which eventually leads to mechanical and physiological, as well as to psychological, breakdown. Even in cases where such extremes are not reached, the subject of chronic anxiety works uneconomically and often unhappily. These people can be greatly helped by teaching them to disperse the excessive muscular tension, and through this to experience a tranquillity otherwise impossible for them. It is, of course, necessary to go further and teach the pupil how to maintain this state when confronted by the varying conditions of life. This requires some patience on the pupil's part as well as on his teacher's.

It cannot be contended, however, that all neurotic people can be dealt with in this way alone and that other more psychologically-based techniques are superfluous, but much good can be done by this somatic approach in many cases, if they are judiciously selected. There are many other cases, however, where a combination of this approach with established psycho-therapeutic techniques may greatly hasten recovery and lead to greater stability. The very fact that the pupil has taken an active part in his own re-education increases his sense of responsibility and confidence.

The new physical education is not a matter of doing a series of more or less violent movements, having little or no relation to movement in daily life, and rarely seen outside the gymnasium, nor even of dancing round more or less gracefully to a tinkling piano.

The first thing about it is that it recognizes that the state of a person's body depends on how he goes about his daily life; how he stands, sits, walks, sleeps, speaks and carries out his daily work, rather than on whether he performs a few exercises daily, or plays some game occasionally.

It is also recognized that each person's body is peculiar to that person, and thus what is applicable to one is not necessarily applicable to another (though, of course, there are certain fundamental principles common to all) so that it is not possible to give a few exercises which can be carried out by everybody without the possibility that many people will perform these exercises in ways that will harm them.

One main obstacle to the learning of better body management is that until we have learnt how to direct our attention properly, we have little or no idea how we move. We know that we stand, sit and walk, but have very little idea how we do these things. We do what feels natural

and right, though so often this can be shown to be fundamentally unsound. Consider the tense way many people sit to write with the weight badly distributed, body hunched up, neck stiff, brows knit, eyes strained and the pen gripped with excessive tension. The people who write like this, and they are probably in the majority, feel that it is perfectly 'natural' and are usually not aware of the strain as such, although they may wonder why they have headaches after doing a lot of writing, or discomfort in the neck, shoulder or wrist, or feel perhaps unduly tired. In teaching children to write, these faults should not be allowed to arise. For it is certain that most bad habits of movement and posture are formed in childhood. Usually the teacher is so anxious to get the child to write that she spends little effort in helping him to maintain good posture, and unfortunately there are too few teachers who know how to do this correctly.

The fact that we are often unaware of how we move is well, and sometimes amusingly, illustrated at the place where I work, for we take photographs and make films of some of the pupils, and the astonishment expressed by many at seeing themselves on the screen leaves little doubt as to how unconscious they were of the way they moved.

Another thing the new physical educationist realizes is that piecemeal exercising does not lead to more graceful effective movement or co-ordination, though it might strengthen specific muscle groups. Instead of doing separate exercises for individual muscle groups, the approach is directed to the body as a whole, by observing posture, the primary structural control of which lies in the relative position of the head and spinal column to the rest of the body. In other words, if the head and spine are kept in the right alignment then all the other parts tend to come into line too, though, of course, attention must be paid to specific parts as well. Certainly if the head and spinal column are badly aligned in action the whole body will be thrown out of balance and excessive strain will be felt in some areas of the body, whilst other muscle groups may be given little to do. It is no satisfactory cure to exercise these undeveloped muscles specifically, for this will not bring about better co-ordinated movement. No! The cure lies in dealing with the underlying disturbances of posture, then the under-developed muscles will tend to do their proper job, thus developing normally.

Bad posture and ill-co-ordinated movements are the result of long-standing, unsatisfactory and unconscious responses to the desire to move, stand, sit, walk, lift, and so on. The pupil must therefore learn to respond to these everyday impulses in a new co-ordinated way if he is to improve, for mere exercising will not do the trick.

The new approach can be summarized thus. Pupils are considered individually, their everyday and occupational movements are observed. They are shown where faults lie, partly visually, and partly by being given the sensation of well co-ordinated movements. They are then taught, through the teacher's directive handling of their bodies a procedure for establishing well co-ordinated responses to the urge to move.

By this approach to physical education many different categories of people can be helped towards more effective action besides the ordinary person who wishes to be fitter. There are many

disorders besides brachial neuritis, pain in the back and in the joints, and the now famous slipped disc, which are often attributable to, or aggravated by, mismanagement of the body. There are also the psychosomatic disorders, and those of over-tension and anxiety such as asthma and certain kinds of headaches and indigestion. More and more doctors are finding to-day that, for fundamental cure of these disorders, re-education is more important than palliatives.

Then there are those disabled through injury, many of whom can be rendered more comfortable, mentally and physically, by being able to use even a damaged body more effectively.

But perhaps the most important field for the establishment of these new methods is in schools where the young can be prevented from acquiring bad habits of posture and movement and the tense, anxious behaviour which is all too common to-day.

ANY HEAD TO ANY STAFF

E. B. Williams, Headmistress of The Hugh Clopton School for Girls, Stratford-on-Avon¹

THE relationship between a Head and the members of her staff is often the keynote of all that takes place in a school. It is not easy for a Head to ensure that her administration is followed by people in some cases older, in others younger than herself, perhaps more experienced, if in a somewhat limited field, or not experienced at all. Yet the way in which this task is performed influences large masses of children for better or for worse and that influence is lasting. In dealing with a member of her staff, a Head is communicating directly with a person about persons who, as yet undeveloped, are ready to apply their ingenuities in all directions and who are ultimately to be released as helpful members of society. The Head and the staff, particularly in large schools where the Head's contacts with the children are less frequent, should know each other well. A good deal of tolerance and understanding is required by both if the child is to benefit. In some ways a Head should find this understanding the easier, since she has usually had experience of being a member of a staff, whereas the reverse is very seldom true.

Confidence between Head and Staff

A Head's first duty is to know something of her staff's personal circumstances, so that she may

be in a position to give real guidance and, where necessary, pass judgment. No wise Head will expect to lay down a policy applicable to all, but, within limits, she should be able to devise a working system which can become sufficiently adaptable to suit the needs of the school. Most important of all, the staff should be well-briefed both in the overall and detailed purposes of the school, and the Head should know how much flexibility is needed by the personnel with whom she is dealing.

The Head as a rule learns something of a member of staff's circumstances on appointment, whether for instance she is married or not, whether there are children; whether she has the responsibility of supporting aged parents. A member of staff should be willing to disclose anything further which has a direct bearing on her work in the school. It is the Head's duty to legislate in the light of evidence at her disposal, and this can be done most accurately if she has the necessary facts and if she knows them at first hand. Here are some cases in point. Illness must be admitted by staff, and the Head, while retaining full sympathy, must be judicious and realize that first responsibilities are to the children. Emergency operations, and even perhaps a tendency

¹ A bi-lateral school for 550 girls, with grammar and modern streams.

to colds in bad weather must be tolerated by all concerned, but repeated visits to hospital for treatment during school hours should not be accepted indefinitely, and here the Head has no option but to make clear to a member of staff that she is under an obligation to do everything possible to arrange her personal life outside school hours—to visit the hospital on Saturday, to visit the doctor's surgery in the evening and so on, in order to keep herself fit.

A minority of teachers can be very inconsiderate if not checked. There is the member of staff who arrives home from a continental holiday the week-end before the beginning of term and who stays away on the first day because of illness, or more accurately through tiredness because of a badly-planned holiday. Others again will ask for a day's holiday on account of removal—because of the regulation 'Moving house or taking a new house'. If circumstances are such that no other possible arrangement could be made there is nothing more to be said, but if the Head feels the teacher in question is simply taking full advantage of a clause included by a sympathetic Education Committee in 'Regulations for Granting Leave of Absence to Teachers' then it becomes a Head's duty to point out that, in this kind of absence, the work necessarily devolves somewhat unfairly on someone else's shoulders and a degree of consideration for one's colleagues is desirable at all times. There has too to be tactful and judicious handling of the member of staff who asks leave to go early, perhaps to go away for a week-end, to attend a wedding or again, to come back from it late on the busiest of days. No hard and fast rules can be laid down for these occasions, but the Head has an obligation to see that other members of staff are not unduly harassed by requests of this kind. The more knowledgeable the Head is therefore about her staff's individual circumstances, the more judiciously she will be able to make decisions when confronted with situations of this nature.

The Conventions and Personal Relationships

What of personal relationships between members of staff and Head? These must vary according to the size of the school. There are schools where the staff and Head call each other by their Christian names, and where 'O.K. Boss' is the accepted idiom. In some schools this convention apparently does no harm but reputedly fosters

friendliness, goodwill and a host of other virtues. It is a state of affairs, however, that needs to be handled carefully for it has its dangers. If a reproof becomes necessary, it appears to strike doubly hard where there is too much familiarity. Taken by and large Christian names in a school are out of place. After all we are not on a golf course, and it is not a bad thing to foster some atmosphere of dignity no matter how out of date it may sound.

There are simple courtesies which every member of staff should be prepared to observe and which every Head should appreciate. In the event of absence a member of staff should let the Head know at once that attendance is not possible, but that work will be forwarded if circumstances allow this. It is a great help to a Head if her staff are able to give a reasonable and frank opinion at a Staff Meeting; it is no help if grumbles are aired when the Head has left the Staff Room; those members who merely sow the seeds of dissension without making any attempt to suggest remedies betray little sense of values or of loyalty.

And in return what is the Head's obligation? She will surely show the same respect for her staff. She will keep the staff well informed and

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in the school picture. Some information has to be treated by the Head in strict confidence, but on the whole there is certainly no reason why the staff should not be aware of the Head's problems and they should be acquainted as far as possible with those of the individual child—the child who needs extra care and attention because of some unforeseen circumstance at home. Indeed a five-minute daily staff meeting will pay heavy dividends in this direction for all concerned. It is for the Head to differentiate between worrying endlessly at a problem for which there seems to be no solution, and alternatively taking steps towards its solution by enlisting the help of the staff.

To what extent a Head is able to enter a Staff Room, sit comfortably in an armchair and become one of them depends very much on human relationships, and also on the size of the staff. Some school staffs feel strongly that a Head should respect their privacy and keep away altogether from the Staff Room. On the other hand an observant Head can often help by giving a social lead whereby the older members may learn to be more sympathetic towards the younger. Again she can so behave towards older staff before younger that the younger understand the respect that is due to their older colleagues. This kind of staff-room contact can indeed be very valuable, if there is respect on both sides.

The Head's Guidance on Class-Work

The establishment of right relationships becomes most important of all when the Head is dealing with the staff's actual work. The Head is ultimately responsible for the quality of work in a school and the amount of ground covered, and must therefore keep herself conversant with such matters, directly in the case of the smaller school, and through the heads of departments in the larger one. There are several devices which help here. Fortnightly forecasts of work to be attempted or *résumés* of work completed may give the Head an idea of whether the staff is covering the syllabus, and whether a syllabus designed for a particular age-group is within their range.

It is by no means possible to rely entirely on paper, and every Head is in duty bound to pay some visits to the class rooms. She will know that her very entry creates a somewhat artificial situation. The children who love to show off will put on their best show, the most retiring may

withdraw completely from the field of action. The Head must be prepared to take this unnatural state of affairs into account in her deductions, and aim to know the children sufficiently well to assess their average reaction to the teaching they are receiving. To give the class teacher in question her head and let her proceed as far as possible as if she were on her own seems the fairest thing to do. It is wise of a Head to make notes of both good and bad points of teaching technique as she listens and observes, and in due course to let the staff know of these and have an opportunity of discussing them. There may be good reasons for some approach which the Head might at sight judge harshly; alternatively some of the staff's moves may involve a process that becomes unnecessarily lengthy, tedious and complicated. Here some guidance from the Head will save lost energies on the part of the staff and a good deal of wasted time and possible nonsensical behaviour on the part of the pupils. Exchange of criticisms and ideas should be a matter of course between the Head and staff, and not a peculiar occasion over which the Head wonders how best to approach a member of her staff, who in turn is filled with apprehension and feels her days of teaching may be numbered. Both staff and Head should see the whole thing in proportion.

The Head's Guidance on Discipline

Situations do arise in the best regulated schools where class control is not all it should be, and where often enough the less able members of staff will plead for more and more crutches to be put at their disposal. The sooner a teacher realizes that such devices—constant punishments such as sending to the Head a reprobate or banishing an offender from a room—weaken her own position, the better. Children have a balanced sense of justice, and if the staff dictate terms entirely at their own bidding and without any apparent recognition that they too may have been at fault, the child is liable to find this a most unjust state of affairs.

But staff should not regard the Head as responsible for discipline during their teaching. There would be something very wrong if remote control were as effective as this. We all know children who will play up whomever they can, and they know their man in a very short space of time. The duller the child the quicker seem her perceptions in this direction, or perhaps her reactions to

poor staff-control are less subtle than those of her more intelligent companions. We all know too that one group can be quite angelic with one member of staff, perfect fiends with another. The Head's share must be done by the establishment of the right kind of rules, over which she will be open to suggestion. The staff must see these rules are consistently obeyed, and that they secure a respect from the pupils which there is no gain-saying. This is not easy, and personality must play a large part. It has been said that to look the part is half the battle. It certainly does *not* help if children are able to comment unfavourably on a staff's dress or hair style. To dress smartly and look as attractive as possible are sure aids to enlisting children's admiration, and to obtaining that respect so vital for good discipline. Together with a certain standard of appearance there is a certain manner which children recognize as authority, which demands obedience. Most young members of staff have to cultivate this in their early days, and the Head can help them to go very slowly at the beginning—to give one instruction at a time and see it is obeyed. A teacher must learn from the outset not to ask the children to move every desk and chair in the room, and above the prevailing bedlam expect silence; nor must she issue yet one more command above the din. These are errors which create situations difficult to correct because they strike at the very root of control. No one can expect a Head to smile benignly at such a scene or ignore it. No matter how patient she may be, she is apt to feel angry at having to rescue the children from further damage, possibly physical most certainly psychological, and point out to the member of staff that commonsense is the basis of all class control. The staff should also realize that, if they rely on the Head for ordinary discipline, this will establish her in the minds of the children as some kind of bogey who always insists that the adult, no matter how unreasonable her demands, is right and the child invariably wrong.

Yet one more situation can arise in which the Head must intervene. When a member of staff encourages the affection of an individual child to such lengths that she is emotionally disturbed the parent, quite rightly, will come to see the Head. We are aware of the schoolgirl's crush. Sometimes it can have the result of spurring an individual with his work. This appears to arise where the initial urge to please the member of staff is left

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behind in the desire to reach the ultimate goal, and the work, now fascinating for its own sake, has become the desired target. Unfortunately this is not always the case, particularly with the highly emotional or less stable child, whose *idée fixe* becomes embarrassing. It seems unwise, therefore, of staff to single out a particular child for invitations to tea or a visit to the theatre. This may be done in the first instance in a spirit of much kindness, but it comes to be seen out of all proportion by the child, who, thus singled out, loses her place in the community, and in the long run has to suffer a good deal for it.

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setting a form to do a column of sums, sits down to mark another form's work. But over and above all this, the staff often works through a dinner hour on some kind of duty, after school hours with out-of-school activities, such as drama clubs, school choirs, games' practices; in the holiday period some will take children to places of interest either at home or abroad. A Head too has to take a share in this interesting and massive contribution to school life. There is undoubtedly great joy for all concerned in this additional work, where precise duty is not concerned, and it means much to members of staff if their Head can find time to attend a rehearsal and appreciate the efforts that are being made, for she is the only one in the school in the position to show adult gratitude, and appreciation of individual endeavour.

This brings us to the vexed question in larger schools of special responsibility posts. The Education Authorities, ostensibly working through the Governing Body, require the Head to be the prime mover in these appointments. It is not an easy task. Sometimes the posts of responsibility are definitely attached to particular positions, such as those held by heads of departments.

Sometimes fresh blood comes into some department that seems well deserving of recognition. Alternatively there may be floating posts of responsibility, assigned for certain work to be done after a length of service in the school. These awards result in an avalanche of protest in some Staff Rooms, where staff unashamedly advocate the non-winners, refrain discreetly from mentioning themselves, although this would seem to be their ultimate aim in enlisting sympathy for their views, and where the rewarded staff creep in guilty of their recognition. It can become a sad state of affairs. Members of staff do not always realize that the Head alone can keep in mind the overall picture. They should be able to feel sufficient loyalty in their Head to know she will act with the utmost fairness, nor should they wait until results are published and then, affronted and hurt, try their luck elsewhere. The Head's task is no enviable one. She has to justify her suggestions to the L.E.A., to the Governing Body and hope her selected member of staff will not let her down in anyone's eyes, least of all in those of the rest of the staff. The staff would do well to be tolerant here. If a post of special responsibility is an ultimate aim, then their work must be of sufficient merit to justify their claim, so that if the Head is not in a position to help them in her own school she can suggest promotion elsewhere, and do all she can to help them get it.

Conclusions

Members of staff have indeed to cultivate much understanding both in their relationships with each other and in realizing some of the problems that confront the Head. How often has she to sum up a situation rapidly, take stock of the persons involved and disentangle or reconstruct as the case may be? It is clear that both Head and members of staff have a part to play. These parts if neatly executed will dovetail, and education will be all the richer for the creation of a situation where the Head is released from undue concern, where a member of staff is at ease and feels securely on the right lines. It is of paramount importance in a school, where *persons* are the material with which we are dealing all the time, that the reactions of the Head and members of staff are constantly kept in view, so that each may help the other to create an atmosphere in which it is easy for the child to operate and grow and in which they themselves feel at one.

NEWS AND NOTES

BOMBAY SECTION

We had a meeting of our Fellowship on the 17th November, 1954, at which Jai Prakash Narain, a prominent National Leader who has now devoted himself to the cause of 'Bhoomidan', talked to us on *Teachers and the Changing Order*. The lecture was very well attended and he spoke for nearly an hour explaining to the teachers the importance of their task in the changing order. He said that India is passing through a Peaceful Revolution not only in the sphere of material life but in those of moral and mental life as well. The life values of the past are fast disappearing and people to-day are aiming at an Order in which the Society will be based on mutual co-operation and understanding through Ahinsa Non-Violence. He asked the teachers to think how far the educational system is in keeping under such revolutionary changes. He hinted that the teachers should develop in the students a spirit of self-reliance, social service and social responsibility. This could be achieved by a new type of education based on Basic Education.

We also had a meeting on the 8th January, 1955, when Miss Woodcock spoke to our members on *Australian Teachers and Education*. This too was very well attended.

K. C. VYAS, *Honorary Secretary*

NORTHERN IRELAND SECTION

In Northern Ireland we await our Report on the Secondary Schools Examination System. The Ministry of Education for Northern Ireland conducts two examinations; one awarding a Junior Certificate around fifteen years, and the other a Senior Certificate around seventeen years of age. Under certain conditions the Senior Certificate is recognized for University entrance. In order to give all those interested in these examinations scope to discuss varying views and proposals, the Northern Ireland Section of the N.E.F. held a Symposium in November on *Examinations and Careers*. The team of speakers included grammar school teachers and officials from the Belfast Youth Advisory Service. All four speakers considered the Junior Certificate superfluous in its present form. They also argued that certain reforms were urgently needed in the Senior Certificate examination, for example, that it should be taken at sixteen instead of seventeen years of age; it should not be a group examination but a subjects examination on the lines of the G.C.E. It was felt that these changes would make it easier for young people either to take full

advantage of opportunities for Further Education or to meet the requirements of apprenticeship in industry. The views of the principal speakers found acceptance in the general discussion.

Many N.E.F. members outside Northern Ireland will know that delightful book, *The Child and his Pencil*, by Mr. R. L. Russell, of Tullygawley Primary School. In November last Mr. Russell spoke to the Northern Ireland Section on *Poetry in Schools*, and Mr. John Hewitt, himself a poet, took the chair. Mr. Russell dealt with creative writing generally and deplored the insincerity in the written composition of children at school. He attributed this to the fact that they were taught to keep their eyes on words and not on objects. He believed that we must try to encourage in our children 'the unselfconscious outpouring from the loving heart'. To illustrate his approach, Mr. Russell read numerous examples of the work of the children attending his own small two-teacher rural school in mid-Antrim.

DANIEL F. MCNEILL, *Secretary*

SCOTTISH SECTION

During the past two years there has been a marked increase in the activity of the Scottish Section. This has, in large measure, been due to an overhaul of the Constitution whereby a small Executive Committee was elected. This committee has been meeting three times annually

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and although only travelling expenses of members are met from the section funds, these, together with the sending of one representative to both Askov and Brussels has been a considerable drain on our finances.

Apart from the fact that all the branches are now more closely knit, two projects of interest have materialized from our recent meetings.

Firstly, a statement on *Corporal Punishment*, prepared by Dr. William Boyd, is to be discussed at the Annual General Meeting in May and is subsequently to be sent to the Press.

Secondly, a weekend Conference on the *Junior Secondary School* is to be held at St. Andrews from the 23rd to 25th September. Plans for the Conference are not yet complete, but it is our intention to discuss problems which are causing real difficulty to all concerned with such schools.

The branches have all been carrying out their programmes of meetings despite the weather. It would seem that some are following the lead of the *Fife Branch* in arranging visits to new or unusual schools. *Ayr Branch* are to visit a residential Junior Secondary School for boys near Cumnock where the emphasis is laid on agriculture and gardening. They will also visit a girls' school, Auchenhavie, where the pupils are taught chiefly housewifery, cookery, needlework, and undergo some pre-nursing training. *Aberdeen Branch* is to visit the new schools in the new housing areas round the city. This Branch was very proud of the fact that a report on Junior Secondary Schools, prepared by a number of its members after long and frequent deliberations, so impressed the Education Committee that copies are to be circulated to all secondary teachers asking them to discuss the curriculum and methods in the light of this report. The two highlights of the *Fife* programme have so far been, the entertainment of Probationer Teachers attended by members of the Education Committee and the Inspectorate, and a Burns' Supper, where haggis and education seem to have 'gone down' with equal delight. *Dundee* and *Edinburgh* members, while apparently not so enterprising as the other branches, are very much alive and their monthly meetings have been well attended.

WILLIAM CHRISTIE, *International Secretary*

VICTORIA SECTION

It does not seem like six months since we submitted a report to *The New Era* but we do tend to relax so completely during our sunny summer days as to be almost unconscious of time. But with the first nip of autumn air we come to—and this year we have come to to find our visitor almost on our doorstep. We look forward to welcoming

Professor Bream, Associate Professor of Education at the Lehigh University, U.S.A., and expect both to enjoy and benefit from his visit. He comes to us under the Fulbright Scheme, as an expert in group dynamics. Some of us have formed small groups which will meet regularly once a week with Professor Bream over a period of about two months. In this way we hope to increase our understanding of rôle-playing and participation in discussion groups. All our members will have opportunities of meeting and hearing him, and in addition it is giving us the greatest pleasure to share Professor Bream with other organizations. His visit comes at a time when we are feeling ready to move away from lecture-type meetings, and we feel we will benefit to the maximum from this unique opportunity.

One of our members—Arthur K. Sandell—is the appointed organizer of Professor Bream's time here in Australia. It is no easy task to arrange meetings over six states and several branches—giving each a fair stretch of time—avoiding vacations and so on, and yet ensuring that in nine months time the lecturer will be 'alive to tell the story'. But Arthur Sandell seems to have made admirable plans for this.

NANCY SHERRARD,
President

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These four books have been arranged to meet the needs of children at the pre-reading stage and the requirements of older children in the Infants and Lower Junior Schools. The chief aims are: (1) to develop the skills of correct speech and also the phonetic skills of language; (2) to direct the flow of ideas through units of thought—through phrases and sentences; (3) to foster a feeling of joy and satisfaction in the use and art of language and the power of translating it into varied forms of activity.

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Educational Department

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Book Reviews

Measurement and Evaluation in the Secondary School.

H. A. Greene, A. N. Jorgensen and J. R. Gerberich. (Longmans Green. 35/-).

During the last decade a new science has grown up, welding together many isolated subjects and providing new perspectives of what had become almost barren soil. This is cybernetics, the science of communication, and many of its most fruitful hypotheses have been developed in the field of education. One of its most fundamental concepts is 'feedback'—the flow of information from the working end to the initiating end, and this feedback may be a direct mechanical linkage as in a nervo-mechanism, a million complex nerve circuits in the human body, or messages from the battlefield to the general's conference table far at the rear. More relevantly to us here, it is also represented by the scientific assessment of a child's mental progress by the individual responsible for the latter.

Teaching efficiency is said to be a function, mathematically speaking, of feedback quantity and operational quality based on its results. That is, we must be able to evaluate accurately the educational development of the child, and adjust our teaching technique accordingly. For both of these processes, the book by Greene and his co-authors appears to be the perfect instrument.

This is an authoritative work by two Professors of Education and a University President. Although written at academic level, the text is extremely readable and maintains interest throughout, apart from that inherent in the subject matter, by its easy flow and apt phraseology. Its twenty-five chapters cover the measurement and evaluation of every conceivable subject encountered in the secondary school—health and the fine arts, receptive and expressive language arts, science and social studies, music and mathematics, and many more.

It is more than a mere catalogue of tests or a handbook on their use, however. Each chapter has a dozen or two topics for discussion which cut deep into the core of the subject covered, and in addition there are some thirty exercises in computation, the successful completion of which will guarantee that the reader has a thorough grasp of elementary statistical methods.

This aspect alone makes the book an invaluable one for training college

students, while for research students in education, reading for postgraduate diplomas or a Master's degree, the excellent bibliography, which covers nearly five hundred references, is probably the most comprehensive, and certainly the most up-to-date list in print to-day.

In spite of its high technical standard of explanation, description, and discussion of fundamental theory, the immediate and very practical requirements of the teacher have been met in the fullest possible way. The construction of tests for classroom use is described in detail from first principles, while an appendix gives a list of all the major standard tests and the addresses of the publishers. These are all American, unfortunately, and the excellent British versions with which the teacher will be most familiar are not included. The tests cited can, however, be obtained in this country through the National Foundation for Educational Research.

The book, like the tests it describes, is not purely diagnostic; it is therapeutic as well. The text is amply illustrated with scales, analysis tables and charts, and these show simply and clearly how defects in traditional subjects can be analysed and corrected. The remedial chart for spelling, for example, shows not only a wide range of possible causes each with an appropriate remedial treatment, but indicates the additional evidence required before the suggested cause can be accepted as the right one. This built-in test of validity is typical of the many unique features which the authors have introduced into educational assessment during their many years of research, and the whole tone of the volume emphasizes their high regard for valid scientific appraisal in place of unreliable subjective judgment and rash assumptions.

For the reader with no background in psychology, there is a full and adequate glossary, although the meanings of technical terms are usually carefully explained in the text when they first appear, or else are self-evident from their context.

This is an educational treatise which deserves the widest possible readership, and no one in the educational hierarchy can study this book without profit.

The secondary school teacher, especially those concerned with vocational guidance, will find it a constant source of reference, guidance, and stimulation. To the educational psychologist, it is indeed a *sine qua non*.

L. R. C. Haward

Seduction of the Innocent.

Fredric Wertham. (Museum Press. 21/-).

Dr. Wertham, a New York psychiatrist, has produced a book which bristles with disturbing information. Fact is heaped on fact to expose the cynical, ruthless commercialism that has seen in the strip booklet, ostensibly designed for children, a secure medium through which to excite and feed the distorted appetites that obstruct the individual's advance towards maturity: the dream of omnipotence; the allure of blood and butchery; fantasies of sadism-masochism; the vindictive triumph of group hate; the elation in feelings of racial supremacy; the vanity of making figures of authority look silly. In these booklets, fair is foul and foul is fair. Man's shadow side is set in the midst of children, unrelieved by any touch of dignity, beauty or greatness, and the children are invited to identify themselves with it.

As though this were not enough, the advertisements of the booklets trade on the fantasies and inferiorities provoked by the copy. Stabbing and throwing knives, guns and 'bone-breaking secrets' are all for sale. Girl readers are also taken care of. For two dollars plus postage a reader may possess herself of Blue Passion perfume: 'Can you make strong men weak? Do you dream of thrilling moments of love and ecstasy? Let Blue Passion help bring him into your arms.' Or, if you can afford an extra dollar, then Fury perfume is yours: 'Men killed each other just for her favours.'

Pimples, thinness, fatness and bad breath are all used to whip up anxiety and extract dollars from the young readers. There is no need to be 'self-conscious about your flat-looking bust line.' Such 'problem bosoms' may be transformed at from two to six dollars for the advice. Anyone, in fact, can be *nearly* like Superman or Wonder Woman. Muscles and bosoms, guns and perfumes are, it seems, the secrets of life. Only dopes are interested in anything else.

Sales in the United States have been estimated at sixty million *a month*. Why has this parasite on the life of childhood been allowed to grow to such proportions? Partly laziness, partly ignorance, but partly because of a widely-held confusion about the rôle of aggression in child development which has been bolstered by 'experts' in fee to the publishers themselves. The confusion is that *any* outlet for a child's anti-social aggressive impulses is 'good for' the child. Such a crazy

distortion of psychological principles emphasizes the need for psychologists to put their communications in order on this matter of aggression. The proper aim, of course, is to help a child to accept and socialize his destructive impulses, not to teach him to glory in them. But American parents, at least, have failed to get this clear in spite of a mountain of books and features on bringing up children.

Dr. Wertham wipes away any complacency that may still exist about the vulnerability of children to false values in what they look at and read. But, the book finished, one is left with the feeling that what really stands condemned is not so much horror comics as the civilization of which they are a symptom. A civilization which combines intense commercialism with considerable individual isolation and a pathetic inability to accommodate the passions and vision of youth is wide open to perversions and their exploitation. Educators will find in *Seduction of the Innocent* plenty to remind them of the size of the task they face.

James Hemming

Down to Earth. A Practical Guide to Archaeology. Robin Place. (Rockliff. 16/-).

In spite of the present popularity of archaeology, the notion of Buried Treasure, of the search for *objects*, dies hard. How many volunteer diggers, told off to show visitors round their site and edge them towards the Collecting Box, have had to bite back their words, swallow their pride and make tactful answers to questions such as:

'What are you looking for? Buried treasure?'

'Found anything? Jew'll'ry? A stiff?'

'Them young chaps up on t'moor is looking for gold, I reckon.'

In fact it is delightful to the excavator to find real 'treasure trove', but its importance to the science is not necessarily very great. The broken lug or rim of pot, the black reflection in the sand of what was once a beam, the post holes either side of the old hearth which mark where a gallows carried the great square vessels over the fire . . . these, in their related context of immediate surroundings of wall foundations, floors, and ditches, the whole in turn collated with similar finds elsewhere, this is the stuff of excavation. There are few immediate results, to the modern archaeologists. In fact the end gets more and more remote, as the list of laboratory tests grows longer, and more and more comparative material comes to light. Not only is the sorting and listing and salvaging of specimens taking more time as techniques improve, but car-

bon dating, pollen analysis, fluorine testing and other laboratory work, geological consideration and even astronomical calculation, all enter into the ultimate findings and it may be years before the final Report on a site is published. For the excavator is looking for evidence, not things. Robin Place makes this very clear from the beginning, and it becomes clearer and clearer as the book proceeds. In fact, clarity is her peculiar contribution to the *corpus* of archaeological instruction.

The book is addressed to the amateur, the would-be excavator approaching with timidity his first dig, the student who requires a handy text-book, and the general reader. Incidentally it is invaluable to any teacher whose curriculum is likely to require prehistory, and one prays that it may dissuade the hearty enthusiast who criminally desires to dig unaided and alone, unlearned in the art.

The first part of the book, which is a brief history of Prehistoric Britain with due reference to comparative material abroad, tells the story as it has been revealed through certain famous excavations, and states the general aim of all modern excavation. She takes it up to the Iron Age 'C' people and the coming of Rome; here, ' . . . the prehistory of Britain ends, for its *history* began with the pens of Greek geographers and explorers, and Roman historians and civil servants. Documents . . . give what the spade can never uncover, the personalities of the past. The archaeologist can conjecture sieges and battles when he comes upon the evidence of war, but it is only through the writings of Tacitus that the thick layer representing the burning of old Roman Londinium can be ascribed to the vengeance of Boudicca.' The aim of the modern archaeological excavator is to find the way of life of people who have left no other record than that which lies in the soil of their dwellings.

Part Two deals with excavation itself, how sites are found, how volunteer diggers may apply for practical work, how the digs are organized, how financed and so on. She gives as an example the extraordinary find of two Iron Age flat-bottomed boats at North Ferriby in Yorkshire. Seen in the mud of the Humber in 1937, the excavation had to wait until after the war, when the organizer was assisted by innumerable authorities, from the Maritime Museum at Greenwich to the National Fire Service and the East Riding Constabulary, a list as long as your arm, or as the boats, one of which was forty-three feet in length.

The volunteer is told what to expect in the way of living conditions, work, hours, what to wear, tools to take, and so on. Then she describes digs of

various types in chronological order of the period each discloses, beginning with Nanna's Cave on Caldey Island (Mr. A. D. Lacaille), and ending with Maiden Castle (Sir Mortimer and the late Tessa Wheeler and Colonel Drew).

Particularly in the case of Maiden Castle, which was stormed by the Romans, several peoples in the several periods of pre-history had used the site, their post-holes, house-places, ditches and causeways often overlapping or entirely destroying those that had gone before. This complicates excavation and recording, and makes reportage difficult to follow. Miss Place simplifies the huge Report into a few pages, thus giving a concise chronological statement. She also makes very clear, in her description of the excavation of Nanna's Cave, the survival of one period into another, for to add to the difficulties of the archaeologist, there is no hard and fast line drawn in time between periods.

The last Section deals with Chronology and the various methods of dating the evidence and this, as we all know thanks to Piltdown Man, has recently been very much developed owing to relevant discoveries in science. Archaeologists now have several time-checks at their disposal, and Miss Place describes them all, clearly allotting to each period that particular method of dating most suited to its remains. She explains the interplay of geology and archaeology in Stone Age dating, the uses of *actual chronology* and *relative chronology*, Geochronology, dating by Carbon 14, pollen analysis and fluorine testing. Only when some ancient literature can be proved, perhaps by astronomical calculation, to be of parallel date with an illiterate society elsewhere can we achieve historical dating. She explains the way in which methods of dating can be checked against others and pauses to glance back at the great Sir Flinders Petrie and his *sequence dating*, by which method all Egyptian chronology was first decided, and which has only recently been superseded and corrected by other methods; a pretty example of growth of a science, of which each step is necessary to reach the next, and although passed by, remains embedded in the whole *corpus* for ever.

The author says: 'The detective-minded reader will be fulfilling the author's purpose if he seeks further information in the works listed in the bibliography.' Thus she modestly places her book in its right position, that of an introduction to the sources from which it is so cleverly put together. The bibliography, which could have been vast, is surprisingly short but complete and classic.

The only omission, in the view of this

critic from experience of a particular dig, is that of negative evidence, or the excavation in which nothing much comes to the surface. This, while naturally boring to all concerned and especially to the beginner, can be fruitful to the right-minded. Something is still to find—always an encouragement; the excavator must delve into folk-lore, local gossip and legend, comparison with similar sites, research into archives and local museum, where some object found a century before may suddenly cast a light. Soil tests and pollen analysis are invaluable in these cases, and conversation with local farmers. In the case mentioned, a farmer said: 'I always knew the corn grew taller along that line to the river . . .' The line to the river marked the *Cursus*, down which, between banks, the human sacrifice may have been led in ritual procession to propitiate whatever god therein was worshipped. But the only object found had been one tiny sherd.

John Waterman

Maja Carlquist

RHYTHMICAL GYMNASTICS

Translated by PHILIP SMITHELLS,
REGINALD ROPER and ROLF JUNKER

Methuen
21s.

The work of Maja Carlquist, one of the greatest authorities on physical education in Sweden, is world famous. Her training of girls and boys is based on the teaching of Per Henrik Ling, to which she has applied the principles of rhythm—'the maximum result with the least possible tension.' Her book consists of a theoretical and a practical section, the latter comprising a series of daily exercises in school gymnastics for children between the ages of 7 and 15, and there are profuse illustrations throughout.

The Education of Women for Citizenship. Marjorie Tait. (Unesco. 5/-, \$1.00, 250 Fr.).

In formulating her suggested programme in *The Education of Women for Citizenship*, Marjorie Tait shows that she is a sympathetic yet practical educator with a deep understanding of the forces that activate individuals and communities. Her conception of good citizenship goes much deeper than education for political awareness, which as she says is a state that can be attained—at least at present—by a minority only of men and women. She agrees wholeheartedly with G. D. H. Cole's thesis: 'Being democratic . . . starts with knowing your neighbours as real persons . . . The real democracy that does exist in Great Britain . . . is to be found for the most part, not in Parliament or in the institutions of local government but in the smaller groups, formal or informal, in which men and women join together out of decent fellowship or for the pursuit of a common social purpose.'

'We can think,' says Mrs. Tait, 'of some women as growing points in their nation. They are fully conscious of themselves as citizens of their world and they perceive the relation between the policy of their country towards the United Nations and the prospects for world peace. They are the leaders and teachers, if they accept the rôle, of other women. The majority of women do not understand these things. The women who do, have to press for the education of the others, but meantime a great responsibility rests with them to be spokesmen for the less

articulate and to interpret their needs and wishes. In order to fulfil this task they must keep closely in touch with other women. One of the ways in which this can be brought about is by the creation and fostering of women's organizations of many kinds within which any woman can find a place and discover the strength which belongs to a union based upon mutual respect for differences and integrated by an honourable aim.'

The book is a useful and delightful statement of the aims and practice of the best in modern Adult Education—its scope, methods, psychology and fascinating possibilities. It shows how the education of adults has its roots in the life of ordinary people in home, school, club, summer school, and in the myriad voluntary and governmental organizations that spring up wherever a people is sincerely trying to live in the democratic way. For many women the first interest in citizenship, as in adult education, stems from their interest in their own children; so 'the district nurse, medical missionary or health visitor can be a woman's first teacher of citizenship'. The best teaching moments after that come out of the need of women to meet together for some purpose of benefit to the whole family, so education for citizenship continues in the Baby Welfare Centre, the Mothers' Club, the Parent-Teacher Association, the local community centre. Horizons widen with increasing age and association with vocational, educational and political movements.

The examples given are nearly all British, but it is a fascinating record relating to, or capable of, inspiring

similar work in other countries. There are stories of the work of the many Youth Clubs with their valuable informal education for good citizenship; there are the Women's Institutes, the Townswomen's Guilds, the Peckham Health Centre, the Village Colleges, the W.E.A. Women at work, women in Local Government, women in national life, in international life—especially as practised in the manifold activities of the United Nations and its agencies, UNICEF, W.H.O., Unesco, the Commission on the Status of Women, and the rest—the canvas broadens to show the beginnings of wonderful work being done in all these fields by trained and untrained leaders, to educate women for better citizenship.

The final chapter on 'Communication and Interpretation' is a practical summary of many modern techniques of informal and formal adult education. Particularly valuable is the description and comparison of such methods as Discussion Groups, Debates, Forums, Lectures, Drama, Committees, and Visual Aids.

Clarice McNamara

Social Welfare Work in Jamaica. Roger Marier. (Unesco. 7/6, \$1.25, 350 Fr.).

Too little background information is on hand which would give meaning to the influx of British subjects from Jamaica into these islands. In particular, public opinion has based itself on rather simplified explanations, often designed to cover up prejudice for or against a colour bar. How did conditions in the West Indies come to be

such that masses of young workers, and their dependents, were persuaded that only emigration could help them to better themselves? Was nothing done to forestall such an exodus?

The present study gives chapter and verse both for the conditions that have led up to the movement towards mass emigration, and for the considerable social efforts that were made by voluntary and statutory bodies, to apply fundamental conceptions of social work to a mixed community. Theory and practice seem to have had a hard time getting together, and personnel changes—as well as changes in administration and in economic structure—have mitigated against steady progress. Nevertheless, considerable success has attended the Better Village Plan, based on Community Centre work, and a network of groups engaged in co-operative endeavour, social, educational and economic, has been working over a period of years.

M. Marier's study which has had the support of every influential body in Jamaica, soberly reports the successful as well as the imperfect ventures; his data will be of value to anyone who studies the fundamental problems of education in the widest sense; for the visitor to Jamaica, or the teacher and social worker likely to meet groups of Jamaicans here, the publication will be a valuable standby.

Margot Hicklin

LETTER TO THE EDITOR

DEAR EDITOR,

The Aberdeen branch has a small group of members who have got together over the education of the under-twelves, particularly from the age of 7+. We call ourselves the Blueprint group as we hope to produce a detailed plan of a way in which these children may thrive.

Our blueprint aims at describing in some practical detail a junior school which is cosy and friendly, and a base for adventure. We want to be able to give exact descriptions of the apparatus we would have available although we do not want to recommend yet another 'scheme of work'. We have in mind children living as individuals, grouping for each other's benefit, as against learning in classes and sometimes splitting into groups.

I am writing on behalf of a sub-committee considering arithmetic, or rather, early work in mathematics and science. I mean nothing grand, just the development of ideas of amounts, shapes and sizes (from half a teaspoonful of bicarbonate of soda to inches of rainfall!). Maybe much of the formal work usually learned from the blackboard and the books could be far more real, as it often is in the good infant school. Probably there are teachers in primary schools (7 to 11+) who have ideas about this and who have worked these ideas out. This group in Aberdeen would like to

hear from anyone working on these lines, and would be grateful for records of any experiments, however partial.
Yours etc.

CRAIG SCOTT (Miss)

[Miss Scott adds that she would be interested to hear from teachers of the entry forms of secondary schools. Please write direct to Miss Craig Scott at St. Nicholas School, 39 Albyn Place, Aberdeen, Scotland.—Ed.]

BRAZIERS PARK

BRAZIERS PARK is running a Mid-Week Course, 19th-22nd April, on INITIATIVE IN WORK AND LEISURE led by Margot Hicklin. This course is designed to create a new impetus both towards our familiar work situation and towards leisure activities. Members of the course are asked to bring along any books, hobbies, music (especially books or songs connected with work, from any country), some sketching or music paper, and any musical instrument they may play. Depending upon the numbers wishing to draw, paint, model, write, act or explore, small groups will perhaps undertake separate activities at times, but the emphasis will be on doing experimental rather than familiar things. Discussion should help to interest those who have not yet discovered their own best way of working and of spending their leisure time. Particulars from the Secretary, Braziers Park, Ipsden, Oxon.—Ed.

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

NOTES ON IMAGINATION

M. Pemberton-Pigott

WHY are children's imaginations so brilliant and ours so poor? Before we can answer this question satisfactorily, it is necessary to examine the general attitude towards this most essential ability. 'Is it a good or a bad thing to have a vivid imagination?' has been the subject of debate more than once by the B.B.C., and many adults are in doubt about their own real opinion in this matter. Very imaginative children, it is said, are always 'making things up', and then get easily frightened and also tend to be untruthful. I dare say we have all suffered, in the rôle of adult or child, in this matter.

I remember how, as a nervous student, I was taking a class of children for 'News' in mid-winter, when one small boy told me that he had seen birds building their nests in Kensington Gardens the day before. Of course, the more I questioned him the more wonderful the birds became. They produced eggs—he had climbed the tree to see—and finally he heard the babies cheeping.

Not knowing how to cope with the situation, I suggested that they were pretend birds; but on receiving a flat denial, and praying that the Headmistress would not walk in at that moment, I made some non-committal remark and passed on to the next child. The problem for me, however, remained unsolved, for I did not understand the anatomy of it till many years later.

Misunderstanding concerning the function and training of imagination leads to the loss of its original power. It has arisen for lack of certain knowledge which has recently and clearly been expounded by Dr. Ron Hubbard, the founder of a new science of knowing which he has named Scientology. He emphasizes the importance of recognizing three universes with which we are concerned. First there is one's own universe, embracing one's own ideas, thoughts, and point of view. Secondly, there is the other person's universe, embracing his ideas, thoughts, and

point of view; and thirdly, there is the Physical Universe, consisting of that which is agreed upon by oneself and others.

If a child rushes up to you and tells you that there is a green tiger chasing three huge monkeys on the roof, he has created these animals and is controlling them in his own universe. They are therefore to him quite real. Nearly all children know that these things are their own creations and that they can do what they like with them. They understand that other people can make tigers and monkeys in their universes. If they have not been confused by adults, they also recognize the fact that the animals which they see in the physical universe are different from those in their own.

In order to keep the distinction between these three parts of existence clear to a growing child, it is most important to reply to his communications in the right way. We might say, in reply to the news about the green tiger and the huge monkeys, 'What fun! What are you going to make them do next? I think I shall make a bear on another roof, and he's going to be eating honey.' Thus you would be acknowledging the reality of the child's world, and showing him that you have your own too. You are also emphasizing the fact that he is the person in control of his pictures.

This is an important point. How confusing if the parent tries to explain to the child that these animals are not *real*, that he is only imagining them; and how disastrous if, when he insists that they are real, he is told not to tell lies. Consider the effect if, as too often happens, he is punished for consistently telling stories. His ability to create is lessened, and if a person has a poor imagination he will lead but a poor existence.

No single problem can be solved without imagination. From the simplest domestic problems to those facing the world to-day, it is the most important factor in finding a solution. If

you could not imagine what your activities were to be during the next hour, would you carry out any but stimulus-response actions? How infinitely more do we need this ability in order to plan the wider future. Dr. Hubbard points out that

'the inhibition of the imagination of a child directly results in the inhibition of the child's ability to resolve problems relating to his own environment and his own life.'

Indeed, we cannot have too much or too good an imagination. We need, as Dr. Hubbard says, 'enough ideas to have enough ideas to throw away ideas'. If we only have a few, we keep them whether they are well suited to our purpose or not.

You may agree with this, but may ask, what about the highly imaginative person who is frightened by his mental pictures? What of those whose imaginations seem to have run wild?

Here, indeed, is a very important point, for here we come upon fear. How many times, when we are afraid, is it not an idea of which we are afraid, rather than the reality? If a child cries at night after a dog has chased him in the day, he is crying because the memory of the dog is frightening him; no actual dog is in the room. Another person will tremble when he passes a place where, the previous week, an accident occurred. There is no damaged car or injured person actually there when he passes the spot, but the picture of it all is in his mind. He imagines the whole scene again, and again is frightened.

If, then, we agree that a good imagination is essential for a full existence, how can we deal with these fears? In Scientology we have what is perhaps a new idea—the idea of training the imagination so that a person can use it how and for what purpose he wishes. One of the tools used in this training is that of envisioning pictures at will. Children thoroughly enjoy this exercise. Teachers in school, parents or friends, read out from lists phrases very carefully prepared by Dr. Hubbard.¹ The children make a picture from each phrase, smelling, feeling, hearing, and seeing the objects to be created as clearly as possible.

Fears can be overcome by realizing that it is an idea which is controlling a person, and that if he can get control of the idea, he will cease to be afraid. Take, for instance, the example of the

child frightened of the dog. He can be encouraged by an adult to make an imaginary picture of the dog, then another one beside it (at least two should always be made). Then he can change their colour and size, he can make them disappear and reappear, or do anything he wishes with them, until he has control of the idea of the dog. If he is very frightened he may not be able to do all this at first, but by making little changes in the dog's appearance to begin with, and gradually increasing them, he will overcome the difficulty; and from a tearful, frightened child he will become one laughing at his own creations.

This article only touches on one small part of Scientology. Many entirely new facts about thought, mind and body are uncovered by this new science; completely new techniques have become available to make the able more able, and to resolve physical and mental ills. All this is done with emphasis on the present instead of the past, and with the important aim of making the person himself responsible and in control.

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¹ *Self Analysis in Dianetics*, by L. R. Hubbard (Ridgway, 12/6), obtainable, together with other information about Scientology, from the Hubbard Guidance Centre, 163 Holland Park Avenue, W.11.

A MOVEMENT GROUP¹

James Hemming

IT is extremely difficult to give an objective account of what happens in a creative activity group. If one is not participating, one is merely the intelligence behind the eye at the end of the microscope; if one is participating, objectivity must be blurred by the projection of personal reactions into the situation as a whole. Objectivity is, of course, never perfect. It is difficult, if not impossible, to discern exactly what is going on when only two human beings meet and start reacting on each other. What chance, then, of giving an accurate and complete picture of the dynamic interplay of persons in groups? All I can do is to outline my own experiences, and one or two discoveries which went along with them, and hope that these have *some* general validity. I will take things in the order in which they happened.

The movement group, on this occasion, was to spend its time in interpretative dancing, individually and in groups. We started off jigging and swinging to drums. Good stirring stuff. Drums are egotistical in some way. They underline the *I* of being. They remind you of your physical existence: robust, earthy things. That is true though group movement to drums rapidly merges personal feeling into a mass mood.

However, it turned out that drums were only the warming up exercises until the pianist arrived. When she did, next morning, our group leader, Eva Faithful, encouraged us to stand and move to appropriate melodies conjured from the air by Irene Britton, who uses the piano as an extension of her consciousness rather than as something that you play. Irene said the group made the music; the group said Irene's music gave them ideas. Anyway, there the music was and we tried ourselves out as dancers.

This moving to music that did not thrum seemed queer to me at first. One felt insecure and all corners. Senses fought each other. Concentrating on movement one forgot to listen to the music; listening to the music one forgot to move. Layers of departmentalized experience refused to merge. Then, for a moment here and a moment there, a flash of what was supposed to be happening broke through the barriers of habit and one's body spoke—a mumbled syllable or two, like a baby's first words.

I would like to break off the account of the group's activities for a moment here to mention one of my 'discoveries'. I have tended to rely on words almost exclusively for communication—spoken words, written words, a little amateur acting occasionally, but words all the way. Movement as expression and communication broke into consciousness as a new mode of apprehension. Of course, I had known a little vague something about the conventions of classical ballet—the language of movement and gesture. This knowledge had been neatly intellectualized and docketed away. But the communication I now became aware of was something quite different because it was personal. Since this burst of insight, the movements of people going about their business speak more clearly to me; and sometimes I could weep at what they say, and sometimes laugh; pity is often touched, linked with gentleness, at the gallantry of the human struggle. The faces, the words, of people tell much; but bodies speak too, and often plainest of all because the message of movement is least often overlaid for appearance's sake. I found this discovery of a new mode of apprehension extraordinarily refreshing. I think it must be so to anyone who meets it as a vivid new experience.

The next phase of the group's activity was to sit on the floor and discuss how to put together a miniature ballet. This notion, once recognized as a possibility, seemed a good one. Now we were physically static as a group, communicating in words, getting to know each other by working at theme and treatment. What theme? In a moment, I found my brain buzzing with grandiose schemes for a symbolic presentation of the modern quandary—the big towns, the big machines, man's isolation among it all, his lost and yearning spirit, the clash of nations and cultures. Surely we could hammer out something beautifully allegorical for a fifteen-minute performance. 'Why not,' suggested Eva Faithful in the middle of my thinking, 'try our own interpretation of the Columbine story? Would there, perhaps, be something in that for us?' The wheels stopped whirring inside my head. I almost framed my protest at stooping

¹ This was one of four groups at the E.N.E.F.'s Conference at Exmouth last Summer. The other groups were on Painting, led by Mrs. Jeannie Cannon; 'You Can Speak French,' led by Mrs. Beryl Biggs; and 'Looking at Things,' a local survey, led by Miss Betty Adams. There were nine working days.

to such a nursery tale at such a time in history. But the others in the group seemed to like the idea. I held my peace. I had already found out that I was swimming in strange waters and was interested in what *might* happen. All right then, why not take a second glance at the Columbine story? After all, it was about love. Could anything be more fundamental and contemporary?

We spent twenty minutes discussing just what had gone on between Columbine, Harlequin, Pierrot and the others of that company. Many ways of interpreting the ancient tale emerged. Then we finished the morning by learning a simple group dance in which each played a specific part but worked out the details his own way.

Hence a second discovery. We were given the structure of the dance and left to interpret our parts within the structure. In this situation I found myself much 'freer' than when trying to interpret music as an individual in a completely unstructured setting. The group movement gave me background, support, stimulus, and so greater security to do something for myself in my own patch of action. It came to me that the endless battle over 'free' and 'rigid' methods in education was in part a false battle. The real—and most difficult—question for educators was *how much* to structure any situation so that social participation and personal self-expression could exist together in the right proportions. I saw clearly that it was as wrong educationally to rob children of needed structure as to rob them of needed freedom. After all, what is 'a free society' but a structure within which each may have the opportunity to become himself within his social environment by being, doing and associating *as a person*. Anarchy can never be the answer either for State or school. Structure is something quite different from regimentation. To confuse one with the other can lead only to worse confusions. All this became quite plain after the group dance.

Working out the ballet was a bubbling adventure. Once again the relation between structure and personal expression became clear. The whole was a pattern of dynamic reciprocity. Sometimes movement had to be modified to suit music; sometimes music to suit movement. Individual dances must bring you to a certain place at a certain time. All are sharing the same total space yet only one can occupy exactly the same space at the same moment, so there must be give and take, understanding and reciprocity—the

discipline of the situation and common purpose, but no regimentation. And as they work it all out together, guided and encouraged by an expert, the group, not in flight from society, but in the jubilation of a secret shared, gains understanding of the nature of human inter-dependence.

We performed our little ballet in public. It was as complete as we could make it. We felt satisfied—which does not mean self-satisfied; the whole could have been everlastingly made 'better'—and we were then finished with it as an external thing.

And here is my last general discovery. Because of the experience of the ballet—comparatively highly structured and disciplined by its inherent characteristics—we were all much freer and happier, less isolated, in our individual dancing. We had learnt how to be responsive to music, how to use space, a little of how an emotion and form fit together in expression. Suppose we had not found our rough edges in the miniature ballet, suppose we had not been subjected to the tension and stimulation of attempting the performance, should we have learnt as much as we did about ourselves and each other? Should we have learnt as much as we did about dancing, however little that may be? Should we have enjoyed ourselves and each other so much? I doubt it. In which I think there is something to be learnt about group association as a whole. May I suggest the natural pattern for a human group is neither 'free' (leaderless) nor regimented (dominated by authority) but *appropriately structured* to serve an *accepted* purpose whatever that may be at the time. Group structures must be responsive to persons and situations; dogmatism about ideal group forms is as much a *cul-de-sac* as any other sort of dogmatism.

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A TEACHING CIRCLE¹

Elizabeth Darker, Maria Grey Training College, London

IN training graduates I have increasingly felt that the lecture method is unsatisfactory, not only because it perpetuates the period of pupillage, but also because students, habituated to three years of academic instruction, come to equate exposition with teaching. They do not readily understand that the lecturer's relationship with his audience is primarily intellectual, and that his chief task is to present ideas clearly to receptive minds, while the relationship between teacher and child is much fuller and more complex, involving emotional and aesthetic contact. It is not invariably that of leader and follower, but a give and take where mutual sympathy and reciprocal help are of supreme importance. In English lessons especially this fuller relationship is essential to that enjoyment of literature and creative writing where teacher and child share an experience, all endeavouring to discover for themselves, to experiment, to explore.

It is not enough to theorize to students about this kind of communication. They need to feel it for themselves and from both sides, that of teacher and of taught. By teaching each other, students can live out both experiences.

In the last three years I have supplemented formal lectures by a teaching circle. Within a small group of about twelve students, each in turn teaches her fellows for a lesson or short series of lessons. She chooses within limits her own subject and method, ensuring always that the material is sufficiently difficult for the learning process to be genuine. The other eleven, with the tutor, respond to her, at the same time observing their own reactions. Discussion follows, as we try to assess the value of the lesson clarifying our views as to the principles and methods involved.

This device is clearly useful to the one who is teaching. She is emerging from pupil status to take over her new rôle. Meanwhile the other eleven can appreciate the situation of children. Feeling the impact of the difficult and unfamiliar, and being aware of their own reactions, usually inarticulate in the child, they can assess what helped or hindered their learning. At the same time they are identifying themselves with the teacher, since she is a projection of themselves.

They are in fact holding in balance within themselves the two ends of the relationship, between which they perpetually oscillate.

In the discussion that follows they can offer criticism, searching and sympathetic, criticism that is easier to accept from one's fellows than from any other person.

Those teaching have chosen their material from various fields. They have tackled knotty points of grammar and analysed ironic passages from Jane Austen. They have conducted the miming of a ballad or the dramatic interpretation of a scene from Shakespeare or Shaw, but the most fruitful work has been done in the reading of poetry. Modern poetry is especially suited to our purpose; it is unfamiliar and often difficult to present and comprehend, while in its questing ambiguity it especially lends itself to a social analysis and appreciation. It is like a musical score that comes to life through the interpretation of conductor and orchestra; and as the various members of the group share their differing reactions to a poem its fuller significance emerges.

In practising the teaching of poetry, the circle has certainly realized the paramount value of that key to learning—asking the right question. The query, 'Do you like it?'—so often put in school—has usually been found barren. It has led us to pronounce judgment before we have understood. More fruitful have been the lines of enquiry suggested by I. A. Richards in his analysis of the four aspects of meaning, the 'plain sense', the 'feeling', the 'tone', and the 'intention' of the poem, though we have found that these are not equally revealing in every poem.

To understand the plain sense of the words is always necessary, but we have found that Gerard Manley Hopkins' *Felix Randal*, for instance, was more fully understood when a question was asked as to 'feeling' or the poet's attitude to his subject, for we then realized Hopkin's significantly contradictory feelings for the farrier, now 'child Felix', now 'at the random grim forge, powerful amidst peers'. On the other hand Blake's 'The Lamb' yielded more of its secret when a question was asked about its 'tone', or the poet's attitude to his hearer.

We have found that a question about the

¹ This experiment has been made during the last three years, in training graduates to teach English in Secondary Schools.

poet's aim or 'intention' has not been so useful with subtle or introspective poetry as with a piece of objective social satire such as Louis MacNeice's 'Christmas Shopping', where this query forestalled hasty strictures. It can illuminate a section of a poem. One student who asked what was the purpose of the first three stanzas of 'The Eve of St. Agnes' led the whole group to a fuller appreciation of this poem in its entirety, although it was already extremely familiar. A query about intention appears to need careful timing and should probably come late. Asked at the beginning of a study of Bishop King's 'Exequy', it led only to confused argument.

A different kind of enquiry, recommended by Day Lewis, that we should distinguish the subject-matter and the theme, often served to reveal the intricate texture and weaving of verse.

The circle has also experimented in various ways of introducing and presenting poetry. Students have agreed on a few specific points of procedure. They have all wished to begin and end the study by hearing the poem read well, preferably by the author, and whenever they are available we have used his own gramophone recordings. Most students like at the same time to follow the printed word, and copies of the poem are always distributed. The only other point on which they have always been unanimous is that each poem suggests its own way of approach, and that there can be no orthodoxy of method.

Through their own experiments students have been led to consider some of the current views on poetry teaching. One is that the poem is a work of art whose whole significance lies in the inner relations of its words. It therefore stands alone and needs no introduction, no extraneous comment. Substantially our experience has led us to accept this view, but by no means slavishly.

The circle has, in fact, found it difficult to understand some poems without perceiving not only the inner relations but also the relation of the poem itself to the circumstances in which it was written. In writing, for instance, 'Easter 1916' or 'The Rose Tree', Yeats took for granted in his readers knowledge of the persons and events of the Easter Rising, and we have found that one good way of introducing these and other poems written in a political context is to put the group in possession of the salient facts before the reading, though ideally such information should probably be assimilated some days earlier.

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Students have also found that they can sometimes more truly estimate the balance in a poem by comparing it with another poem by the same author. They have found that Yeats' 'Sailing to Byzantium' and 'Among School Children' balance and illuminate each other. Some of the significance of one poem may lie in its relation to another. The cumulative effect of recurrent imagery in a group of poems can hardly be appreciated when one of them is read in isolation. In Edith Sitwell's 'Still Falls the Rain' the images of 'Rain', of 'Dives and Lazarus', of 'Judas', and of 'Caesar's laurel crown' are enhanced when we see them woven into the pattern of other poems written at that time.

Inevitably the circle has in its experiment been brought face to face with many of the problems of poetry teaching, such as people's varying sensitivity to audile and visual stimuli, or the

very divergent reactions that religious or political poetry may arouse. The related difficulties of making critical judgments have also been discussed.

But whatever our problems and enquiries, we have in our teaching circle adhered to one principle. The tutor, endeavouring to be the most retiring member of the circle, is concerned that the student should gain in maturity through taking responsibility for both teaching and learning. Through this twofold experience the student can come to know how the enjoyment of poetry can be a communal experience. Having felt this in college, she can convey it in school.

Robert Frost says that a poem 'begins in delight and ends in wisdom', and the best poetry lesson is a delight shared between teacher and taught, whereby all penetrate further into the significance of the images and all are enriched.

THE SOCIAL PUZZLE IN MENTAL HEALTH

Margot Hicklin

I KNOW that I know nothing', said Socrates, and called it the beginning of wisdom. It is an often used phrase, but does not always denote a sincere belief in the shortcomings of one's own knowledge. In the past, specialists in various aspects of Mental Health, in addressing a lay audience, have often seemed to stand for some secret fund of information which was inaccessible to ordinary mortals. How much this situation has changed was noticeable at the 1955 Annual Conference of the National Association for Mental Health at County Hall. The Minister of Health who opened it, Kenneth Robinson, M.P., who presided over the whole of the two days' proceedings, and an impressive list of speakers from Universities and Local Authorities—all seemed to show themselves at some point bothered and bewildered by the size and the complex nature of the problems that underlie the preventive aspects of Mental Health work in society. They reported concrete and positive success in past endeavours; good working principles had been crystallized out of past experience and study, both here and abroad. Yet each speaker in turn had to appeal to adjoining disciplines and to voluntary bodies, for help in coming to terms with the steadily rising flood of work in this field. As more mental ill-health is recognized, so more services are needed; with the growth in services, personnel becomes overburdened by daily duties, and has therefore less time to record and study,

to discuss and research. Yet these are the activities which will lead to the prevention of mental ill-health, just as they led to the decline in epidemics and other social diseases.

It was therefore a fortunate idea to select as the opening speaker, Professor F. A. E. Crew of Edinburgh University, whose field is Social Medicine. Like the Minister, Professor Crew stressed the necessity for research into the causes of mental ill-health as a first condition of their prevention and cure. The Minister had indeed mildly reminded the Local Authorities that their excellent separate services had so far failed to achieve a recognizable pattern of prevention; he had pleaded for a greater knowledge of mental health principles both among the public, the general practitioners and the officers of Local Authorities. Professor Crew, however, from the independent standpoint of a University Chair, upbraided us, the public, for our stupidity and shortsightedness in spending 400 million a year on what he calls an 'ILL Health Service', rather than concentrating on the preventable aspects of ill-health, both mental and physical. Was he right when he said it is gratifying to cure, but that the public will is slow in devoting energy and funds to the prevention of such socially pernicious diseases as alcoholism? The latter, he assures us, is as great a threat as tuberculosis; yet, curiously enough, no particular social stigma adheres to it.

What of the preventative measures which Professor Crew has in mind? They are, in his view, largely social and economic. From studies undertaken in Chicago and New York, it was found that a high correlation existed between poverty, venereal disease and mental illness. The common environmental factor found in these studies was 'cultural isolation'. The admission rate of recent immigrants to hospitals was significantly higher than that of native born, and among the latter, that of the offspring of recent immigrants, higher than that of those resident for generations.

One might say that these conditions hardly apply in this country, but Professor Crew is ready with facts and figures of comparable research undertaken here, and yielding comparable results: for example, in a study of the suicide rate in the London Boroughs, Saintsbury found that loneliness and social disorganization rather than poverty ranged highest as accelerating factors. Of course, everyone agrees that the causes of mental trouble are many, and that social pressures by themselves will not lead to breakdown in an otherwise stable personality who has the inner resources needed to withstand them. Unsatisfactory relationships in the wider group may play their vital part, but it is in the actual family situation that the causes and effects of mental instability find their most telling expression. Professor Crew has evidence that the chances of mental breakdown are far greater among the unmarried, widows and divorced than among those married, especially at certain ages, and especially among men. Whether this indicates that unstable people are less likely to marry or stay married, or whether it means that the failure to marry is a direct contributory cause to breakdown, can be discovered only by careful individual studies which ought to supplement the statistical evidence.

Professor Crew's genuine puzzlement, after all his impressive array of facts and figures, as to what constitutes Mental Health, must have found an echo in his audience as well as on the platform. Whatever we mean by Mental Health we are recognizing steadily more factors that tend to promote a development towards it. The individual must belong; he must be attached to something above and beyond himself; he must have a purpose, and in fulfilling this, he must work not too far above and not too far below his capacity. What he does must be of value to himself, and be recognized as valuable by the group he belongs to. Then only can cultural isolation be held at bay. Unlike many experts who put childhood experiences first, Professor Crew stresses marriage as a single stabilizing factor. To know oneself in

and through another person, in every respect, means to understand and thus control one's behaviour, the first stage in social adaptation. Is this, one would be entitled to ask a causal or a descriptive account of Mental Health?

Like the opening movement in a symphony, the combined efforts by the chairman, whose merits in the field of mental health are well known, the Minister who during his term of office has shown a willingness to act on the best advice available in Mental Health matters, and Professor Crew as the first speaker, set the theme of the day; and it seemed very appropriate that the following session, like a second or 'slow' movement, should be devoted to 'grumbles' from the practitioners in the field, as well as to suggestions for improvement in individual services and in their co-ordination. 'Is our own Mental Health at its best in relationships to one another in the Local Authorities?' asked one sincere and daring woman speaker. Of course it is not, and this was clearly shown by some of the interventions from the floor. Local and personal interest must come into conflict with the general good, and this opportunity for ventilating pet aversions as well as for tilting at windmills, was wisely given.

The following day rewarded us for our patience in accepting the urgent and often alarming facts and figures from the opening speakers. We heard the report of successful experiments in co-ordination, and were immensely comforted as well as impressed by the calibre of the people who had carried them through. Here we can only summarize what seemed important from the point of view of educationists interested in preventing mental ill-health, and in promoting where possible the mental well-being of their own group.

The family doctor's rôle emerged as a vital one in group projects of Local Authorities, as indeed it was intended to be when the National Health Service was planned. A Family Doctor Service, consisting of a group of doctors, a hospital almoner, a health visitor, and any specialists co-opted when required, was built up to serve the community in a slum area; a social club in the same street belonged to it, and whole families registered there. The value of a closely co-ordinated service was demonstrated not only in preventable ill-health, both mental and physical, but also in the opportunities for teaching medical students in their final year how to be good general practitioners. What better group project could there be than one which combined immediate social service, and teaching with the basis for research into prevention?

Individual members could undertake individual studies. The health visitor studied the problems

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THE BODLEY HEAD

of old age before they had happened, thus preventing much loneliness and unhappiness among the ageing. The young mother was supported before her temporary depression had led to actual neglect of her children; thus the services of the N.S.P.C.C. and of the Probation Officer had not to be used at a stage when events might have made their efforts fruitless. Mutual confidence and informal friendly exchange of views between all the workers, was the keynote of this highly skilled experiment, and its success could be repeated, with variations, in other localities.

Imaginative and far-seeing planning for educationally subnormal children and adults, another aspect of prevention in a Local Authority in co-operation with the Hospital Board, was demonstrated by the medical officer in charge. How the emotionally ineducable as well as the permanently defective child, could benefit from special treatment and education in a socially open setting, with the close co-operation of the parents, using short-stay residential, long-term residential and non-residential treatment to suit the needs of the case; how the rules and regulations could be made to serve rather than to strangle the new-born project, was shown to be a matter of patient and co-operative inter-relationships.

'Let no one complain that we have not the

staff to do all we need for any of our patients!' one health visitor had exclaimed. 'If we do in fact co-operate preventively, then overlapping of visits, of records, of diagnosis and treatment can be so reduced that we all have time to do justice to each family.' One wonders if it does not take a person of the calibre of the speaker concerned to inspire the quiet confidence in herself which must be the main asset in her professional and administrative success.

The psychiatric social worker in charge of a city's mental health work, in mapping out the wide ramifications of his functions and those of the staff he controls, placed great emphasis on the degree of training required for the work. To recognize early signs of disturbance, to bring the right social and medical resources to the aid of the individual and of the family, to link treatment with after-care, and to support the emotionally unstable, one has to be well schooled in the dynamics of individual psychology and of social structure. Rather than call in the specialist worker as a last resort, the community can use him best at the point where prevention is still possible. It is here that co-operation is often resisted. Administrators and field personnel in the health and education services regard the psychiatric service as 'odd', and much of the prejudice that used to be attached to the mentally ill has devolved upon those whose work brings them into contact with them.

Is not this one of the levers which we, the ordinary public, can use to help in the work of preventing mental ill-health? When we feel that the 'odd' or unfamiliar person holds a threat to our own security, our first reaction is either to attack or withdraw. Yet when the moment has passed, there is often a stock-taking, a fleeting regret for a lost opportunity of increasing our understanding. Whether for our own development, for the good of the work we do, or for the benefit of whatever ideals we may hold, preventive mental health work must begin at home. Barriers to co-operation are in existence everywhere; curious and incomprehensible behaviour occurs every day in our own circle, and prejudice in one form or another is hindering our social life from flourishing fully and satisfactorily. Perhaps this factor of cultural isolation, which Professor Crew detected in a number of social settings, is a mark of the times we live in, and a sign that we are moving from one social era into the next? At the level of world events, we have become more or less powerless; but there is a scale of social happening where our contribution may weigh very significantly, for or against the fostering of mental well-being.

The Root of the Matter. Margaret Isherwood. (Gollancz, 1954. 13/6).

A prominent feature of our civilization is the way in which much scientific discovery is substantiating the truth of perennial wisdom. Unfortunately it does so mostly in a technical jargon which is unpalatable and often incomprehensible to the ordinary reader, with the result that its importance is not recognized and its value unappreciated. Margaret Isherwood's book is a bold and generally successful attempt to overcome this difficulty in the fields of education, psychology and religion. It is addressed mostly to those large numbers of men and women who, in a more and more secularized and collectivized society, are unable to accept religion in its conventional garments, while at the same time feeling vaguely that—in the words of the preface—'there is something to which they might subscribe if only they knew what it was'. For them and for those on either side of them, the confident believers and the sceptics, this book can be full of meaning.

In the first section the author suggests how, by a change of approach from the theological to the psychological, from the literal to the figurative, from the intellectual to the empirical, those who cannot discern the meaning of existence can nevertheless recognize and witness to the existence of meaning. She deals fairly with the popular case against psychology and emphasizes the importance of realizing that, as in all other departments of child development, so also in the sphere of belief and disbelief, there are stages of growth which cannot be forced and must be respected. Invoking the guidance of Eastern philosophy, she points out that there are different ways of knowing reality, each of them legitimate and not exclusive of the others: 'and since secular education does now make some attempt to fit square pegs into square holes and to let each individual develop in accordance with his psycho-physical constitution, it should not be too difficult to extend the same idea to the religious life, and to allow each to arrive at the spiritual truth (knowledge of God), of which he is capable in his own way as well as in his own time; some primarily through action (Karma yoga); some by intellectual knowledge (Jnana); some by knowledge gained through working on experience (Rajah); and some by personal devotion (Bhakti—perhaps the predominantly Christian type). No one way should exclude the rest; and since all are valid, there is no place for intolerance of the contemplative by the

Book Reviews

activist, of the student by the artist, of the thinking by the feeling type or vice-versa'. [pp. 20-21].

Attention is drawn to the insufficiently understood and therefore underrated importance of myth and intuition in the educational processes, and the value of the symbolic approach to truth is stressed: 'For those to whom the symbolic approach to truth is novel, the psychology for the myth and the fairy tale will bring illumination. For example, when a child asks at the end of a fairy story "Is it true?" we can only answer, "Yes and No". Was Cinderella a real person? No; and yet it is true that the world is full of Cinderellas, of inferior-feeling people who like to day-dream about reversing their rôles in life and becoming great and beautiful and sought after instead of neglected, used and despised. There is indeed a Cinderella in all of us. Who has not experienced the "compensatory phantasy" at some time in their lives?' [pp. 45-46.]

The second section of the book deals with the many ways in which children can and need to have experiences of love, beauty, joy, truth and goodness, not least because only so can they become strong enough to endure their dark, attendant opposites of grief and pain. The point is well made that young people should be given the opportunity to become aware of the truth as it is to be found within themselves and also the truth of what William James called 'overself'. It is essential for the teacher to realize 'the distinction between the instructor who believes that all we have to do is to tell the facts, and the educator who believes there is a potential for creative growth within the human organism, a germ of self-hood, a capacity for ever-increasing awareness which can be stimulated into activity and the individual thereby be enabled to find truth for himself. The educator knows that unless the learner does seek for and with himself, then nothing of importance has taken place, no matter how much verbal information has been committed to memory.' [pp. 118-119.]

Margaret Isherwood's universalist approach is well illustrated in one other quotation where she maintains that 'religion is a wider and deeper concept than belief in any particular creed—indeed, that it is possible to be a deeply religious person without subscribing to a religious creed; just as it is also possible to be an irreligious "believer"—to lay hold of the form and miss the meaning; and, moreover that it is possible for mature Christians, or Hindus, Moslems or others to retain their allegiance to their own religion

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and yet agree with each other on the underlying truth which is common to all and which unites all more strongly and fundamentally than superficial differences divide. People with this outlook who seek for the Highest Common Factor to all religions, instead of trying to make one dominate the rest, build the foundation for real religious unity as distinct from uniformity. There is no safe place left in this closely welded world for the egocentricity of provincialism, either in religion, politics, nationalism or anything else.' [p. 202.]

It should be said that there is an over-richness of quotation in the text of this book, which tends in places, to obscure the outline of the argument; also the diagrams in Chapter IX may irritate where they are meant to illuminate. It is, however, the last five chapters which are the least satisfactory, lacking, as they seem to do, a sufficiently sharp focus and tending to be repetitive and diffuse, so robbing the climax of the book of its full force. This is a pity because it may lead some readers to depreciate the value of the work as a whole. Any such reaction would be most unfortunate, for the book has a quality about it from which parents and teachers can derive much nourishment. Baldly stated, it is the quality of holiness or—if that is too embarrassing a word for the contemporary ear—wholeness, which we need badly in a world that Malraux has described as 'the metallic realm of the absurd'.

James L. Henderson

African Glory. The Story of African Civilization. J. C. de Graft Johnson. (Watts and Co. 21/-).

Dr. J. C. de Graft Johnson is a member of a distinguished West African family, of whom an ancestor was responsible for introducing Methodism to the Gold Coast, and others have served their country, and the British Colonial Office, in various official posts. He himself is attached to Achimota as Resident Tutor in the Extra Mural Department. The book is based on lectures given in this capacity.

By means of a detailed historical, and even prehistorical, account of North and West Africa down to the present day, the author gives a picture of constant infiltration, colonisation and conquest by Europeans or Eastern races, and of the reverse process, the Moorish conquest of Spain, with the consequent movements of peoples and the varied cultural influences both

coming and going. He tells the story of the great Empires which arose within Africa in mediaeval times, and the story of the missionaries, both Christian and Mahomedan. And finally the withdrawal of African people from their country, into slavery. All these influences, together with modern European colonial government, make the Africa we know to-day. To read European history from the African angle is salutary.

The final chapters deal in almost parochial detail with affairs on the Gold Coast, for, as the author says: '... that country to-day heads the list of African colonial territories that are fast moving towards self-government.'

So much detail packed into so small a compass is not easy for the general reader, who indeed may also be puzzled by the discrepancies between the subtitle 'The Story of Vanished Negro Civilizations' and the actual contents of the book. For while the author's thesis is obviously the great potentialities of the Negro, he does in fact quite rightly claim for Africa the Moorish conquest of Spain, St. Augustine who was Berber, the civilization of Ethiopia, and so on. He founds his argument on the great African Empires of Ghana, Mali, Songhai, the Almoravids, and Monomotapa ruled by men of Arab names. He does not, as many other scholars do, consider the glory of these empires to be somewhat legendary. Nevertheless, it is very exciting reading; the author quotes from the old books, with their reports on the great universities of Timbuktu and Ghana, their learned doctors, and huge libraries, the silken garments, the gold and merchandise, the great buildings.

Slavery naturally existed in classical times, when it was a *sine qua non*. But it became a trade when the Portuguese Henry the Navigator sent ten African slaves to the Pope, Martin V, who marked his acceptance with benefits conferred. Then began the wholesale withdrawal of human flesh from Africa, the countries concerned congratulating themselves on saving the souls of the poor heathen, who were forcibly converted on arrival at their destination. At least four later Pontiffs did protest against the traffic in early times, and it was not only the Catholics who were complaisant. We are told that probably one million souls were thus lost to Africa.

'Tribal life was broken up or undermined ... the unceasing destruction of crops led to cannibalism ... the stockades of grinning human skulls, the selling of one's own children as slaves, the unprecedented human sacrifices, were all the sequel to this grand finale, the rape of African culture and

civilization. The African could not understand what he had done to the gods to merit such horrors and cruelties, and as such his attempts to propitiate them became more and more extreme. In ... (the excesses of the slave trade) ... lie much of the horrors of the African continent.'

Against this picture the author draws another, of the present conditions on the Gold Coast for the last several decades, and of educated, patient African gentlemen coping effectively with British officials on the spot and with the more distant, often less prejudiced officials at Whitehall, to whom their Notes are models of courteous plain speaking.

In his Epilogue the author makes a graceful, if reserved, acknowledgment to the European Powers that now govern Africa. They 'have to a great measure contributed towards the recent advance of the African people ... for generations the African ceased to progress. He had lost touch with the old black civilizations and had sunk to a low level of existence. But now, in East, Central, South, North and notably West Africa the clouds of superstition and ignorance are lifting.'

John Waterman

English Mediaeval Castles. R. Allen Brown. (New Heritage Series. Batsford. 16/-).

In his attractive new book on English Mediaeval Castles, Dr. Allen Brown treats them from a functional, rather than the more usual architectural, point of view. It begins a new series of which the next volume will deal with *English Farmhouses*. The publishers are to be congratulated on the handsome style in which they are producing this, which gives scope for more elaborate volumes than their already popular *Junior Heritage Series* on similar subjects at a more elementary level. The stress laid on the developmental use of castle sites leads to serious studies of local defence works or their remains. There are valuable pointers to specific methods of construction and to peculiarities of style especially of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries which have long been Dr. Brown's special concern. This may suggest that, as well as focus on a compact and manageable district, it is advisable to guide students by concentration on a specific period. The available material lends itself to accurate study by sketching, photography, measurement, excavation, and, above all, careful record. It will thus induce academic discipline as well as developing a live interest.

E. Lionel Fereday

NEWS AND NOTES

FRENCH-SPEAKING BELGIAN SECTION

This Section has organized no large public meetings during the past session because we have learnt during the last few years that people are no longer interested in lectures in the abstract. The only meetings that draw a large enough audience are those which include some supplementary interest such as an exhibition, a stage performance, or film.

With this in view we are organizing a week-end at the beginning of May devoted to new aspects of certain visual teaching techniques: the educational film, coloured stills and television.

As far as co-operation with other educational groups in Belgium goes, we have interested our members in such matters as a young people's concert and the commemoration of the ninetieth anniversary of the *Ligue de L'Enseignement*, which founded the training college Ch. Buis. We have also encouraged our members to take part in a one-day study course on popular education through the public libraries, in popular concerts and in many cultural activities arranged for the public at large. On the 20th March our Section took part in the third day-conference on the training of leaders for youth work organized by C.E.M.E.A.

As regards the international field, we have exchanged documents and children's work with several schools abroad, particularly in England, Germany and Australia. We have formed a small committee to study the subjects indicated by the meeting of Section Representatives at Brussels in July 1954, and these topics will be pursued further during the third meeting of Section Representatives in Weilburg.

Our financial situation is satisfactory. We have no deficit, which is the most important thing to be announced at the moment! The secretariat is examining ways of raising funds so that we may be able to pay our international section dues.

The French-Speaking Belgian Section wants to express its admiration and congratulations to Mademoiselle Hamaïde for having brought to perfection the film *Enfants, Heureux Enfants*. This film was made entirely in her

school and its aim was to make further known the educational ideas of Dr. Ovide Decroly and to bear witness to the kind of work he instituted. The distribution of this film has been entrusted to a society called *Education Nouvelle et Cinéma*, which will give the most friendly attention to any request for information for or loan of the film, not least if these arrive from Sections or members of the N.E.F. You are asked to address all your letters on this subject to Mme Milo, Secrétaire de 'Education Nouvelle et Cinéma, 28, rue de l'Arbre-Béni, Bruxelles, Belgium.

H. BISCOMPTE, *Secretary*

ITALIAN SECTION

The Palermo group of the Italian Section of N.E.F. is still the most active. Regular meetings have taken place during the winter. Among the topics that were discussed, one on 'Philosophical Education' was introduced by Professor Albeggiani, vice-President of the group, one on 'Activity Methods in Secondary Schools' by Professor Marchetta, and a recent one on 'The New Education and the Teaching of the Classics' by Professor Monaco. Discussions have been lively and

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the interest of the public in these meetings is growing steadily. The survey of the social and school conditions in Partinico that was started some time ago by the Palermo group is still carried on by assistants and students from the departments of education and psychology.

It would be interesting and worthwhile to find out the reasons why N.E.F. activities in Italy have aroused a wider interest in Palermo, a locality in the deep South, than in all other parts of the country. It may be that the need for a change is so great there that any voice that unveils the crude reality of the social and educational situation has repercussions. Moreover, while in the rest of Italy the interest of teachers of N.E.F. groups is mainly centred around educational problems within the classroom, the group of Palermo has laid its stress more definitely on the social aspect of school activities, and has therefore been able to have a greater influence on public opinion.

Regular meetings of N.E.F. groups of teachers have been held in some Italian towns during the past winter. In Florence meetings are held every Saturday at Scuola-Città Pestalozzi under the guidance of Mme Fasolo. Some social worker has also participated. In Pisa, periodical meetings have taken place in the private house of some teachers. Professor Cecere has been very active in organizing and conducting the reunions. In Rome Mme Carmela Mungo continues her experiments of group work with pupils. She has already prepared some interesting material leading to further investigation. Some contacts have been established with teachers in Trieste. There

are hopes that a N.E.F. group may be soon created there.

LAMBERTO BORCHI

JOHANNESBURG BRANCH

My Committee decided that a most suitable follow-up to the successful lecture tour by Donald McLean last year would be one by Hunter Diack of the Nottingham Institute of Education, and so arrangements have been made for him to make a six weeks' tour in South Africa this year. He will arrive in Port Elizabeth on the 28th July, spend the first two weeks in the Eastern Province, three weeks on the Witwatersrand, and the last week in the Cape. In each centre he will give a short intensive course on *The Teaching of Reading*. We feel this method will give Mr. Diack an opportunity of getting his ideas across to teachers in sufficient detail so that they will be able to judge of them and, if they wish, apply them. His lectures will certainly arouse much stimulating discussion.

The Committee has also experimented recently with a meeting conducted on Group Dynamic lines, as a result of the interest aroused in these by Donald McLean. The response from the meeting encouraged us to continue with the experiment, and we hope, as we go along, to increase our understanding.

At the last annual general meeting of the Branch, Professor R. E. Lighton, Principal of the Johannesburg College of Education, was re-elected Chairman of the Branch; Mr. D. M. Luckin, Vice-Chairman; and Mrs. M. Ramke, Secretary and Treasurer.

D. M. LUCKIN, *Vice-Chairman*

ACTIVITIES INVOLVING ALL SECTIONS

PARENT EDUCATION

Parent Education is a continuing concern of the N.E.F., though the *title* is queried in some Sections. Reports that come in from many sections show how progress is being made in this field. For example:

Six Australian Sections have put parent education in the forefront of their programme. The *New South Wales Section* established two parents' discussion groups, one on 'Coping with difficult Children'; the other on the theme 'Towards happier Families'. The Section also took an important part in N.S.W. Education Week, emphasizing the value of parent-teacher co-operation and parent education. It has also fostered marriage guidance in the State. Leading members of the Section have been invited to join a Commonwealth Seminar on Health Education to contribute particularly to the Seminar's study of parent education. *Queensland Section* has set up two working

groups, one on 'Mental Health of the School Child'; the other 'Parent Education'. *South Australia Section* has established a Commission on Parent Education and Parent Teacher Co-operation. *Tasmania Section* has been studying 'Children's Entertainment through Radio, Books and Magazines'. *Victoria Section* has produced a number of simple pamphlets to help parents in the day-to-day problems they face in bringing up children. *Western Australia Section* has arranged a course of lectures on Parent Education.

The President of the *French-Speaking Section of the Belgian N.E.F.* has given four broadcasts on the upbringing and education of children, with special reference to Human Rights, thus bringing parent education to the parents' fireside, and the Section has held an Exhibition of Children's Paintings which proved of much interest and value to parents and to teachers.

In *Denmark*, where a high proportion of N.E.F.

members are parents, the Section has concentrated on the relationship between Mental Hygiene and Education.

The English Section, which has a permanent Home and School Sub-Committee, has made contact with many parent-teacher associations. A county rally brought over 400 parents and teachers together in Devon to hear a lecture on 'The Child at Home and in School', illustrated by the Canadian film, 'Shyness'. Two such rallies are being planned in 1955; a series of three lectures was arranged at the University of London, Institute of Education, on relationships between Teachers, Children and Parents, and a symposium was held at University College, London, on different aspects of parent-teacher relationships and child development.

The French Section of the Fellowship has established a Commission on 'School and Family in France and Other Countries', and the Annual Conference in Paris discussed this theme as one of its main items. (Some detail of this is given in *The New Era*, July, 1954.) International Headquarters of the N.E.F. is also in close touch with *L'Ecole des Parents et des Educateurs*. (See *The New Era*, December, 1954, and March, 1955.)

In *Germany* the N.E.F. has done some remarkable work in the field of parent-teacher co-operation. In 1954 the Western Berlin Group arranged 40 meetings with parents, besides their everyday activities (parents' library, consultation in child guidance, and so on). Mimeographed circulars give advice to parents on general problems of child development. The Frankfurt Group has also prepared simple sheets for parents on such themes as 'Why does your child lie?', 'Why does your child come late to school?' Sections are shewing their eagerness to exchange pamphlets of this kind.

In *Holland* the Section has set up a Commission to explore ways of bringing together all whose work is concerned with the upbringing, education and welfare of children. The Parent Association of Amsterdam State Schools, the largest in Holland, has joined the Dutch N.E.F. Group. A programme of work in parent education is being prepared—in particular for four cities, Amsterdam, Arnhem, Leiden and Haarlem.

In *India* there has been a conference and exhibition in Bombay, the theme being the manner in which art can contribute to the harmonious development of children. The *Italian Section* has instituted an educational survey into the material conditions of children's homes, thus bringing teachers and parents into close and sympathetic contact. This survey has been

started in a poverty-ridden section of Partinico (Sicily) and it is being continued in other districts. In *New Zealand* the main work of the Section has been on parent education. *Northern Ireland Section* has turned its attention to the needs of parents of handicapped children. In *Pakistan* the N.E.F. has concentrated on spreading New Education principles, which are concerned with both home and school.

Parent-Teacher work in *Scotland* included the establishment of a sub-committee on Parent Education in Aberdeen and the provision of three classes for Parents, each class dealing with a different aspect of child development, two of them led by doctors of medicine who are themselves parents; a series of lectures in Glasgow on the general theme of 'This modern trend of Irresponsibility'; and the setting up of a parent-teacher group in Edinburgh to study the theme 'Home, School and Community'.

EXPERIMENTS IN CONFERENCE TECHNIQUES

As is well known to members, the N.E.F. has been experimenting since 1931 with new conference techniques. Conference members have worked in self-chosen groups under skilled artist teachers at pottery, painting, poetry, miming, music and dancing, and those who have shunned such direct participation in art have been offered groups in such non-verbalized subjects as mathematics and astronomy or in an interpretative discussion group run rather on the lines of those held at the Tavistock Institute for Human Relations. The intention behind these groups was not only to give teachers a new contact with more creative aspects of their own personalities, nor only to put them for a change into a learning situation as a refreshment from the rigours of the teaching one, but also to discover whether after a long session in a studio the quality and freshness of their *thinking* may not be renewed and manifest itself in vigorous discussion.

The assessment of the results of conferences held on this pattern can never, of course, be statistical and cannot easily be obtained from conference members themselves, although the group leaders have often been thanked by members months after a conference for the benefit that the experience has brought to their ordinary teaching lives. During the past twelve months we have held two residential meetings for the group leaders themselves at which we have set out to assess with them work already accomplished and to plan for its modification or improvement in future conferences.

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SECTION REPRESENTATIVES: BRUSSELS

The second meeting of Section Representatives was held in Brussels from 7th-16th July, 1954.

This meeting, like its forerunner in Copenhagen in 1953, was chaired by Mr. Ben Morris (U.K.). Twenty-one members attended, representing Australia (Federal Council, N.E.F.); Belgium (French-speaking Section, who were hosts on this occasion); Belgium (Flemish-speaking Section); Ceylon; Denmark; England; Germany; Holland; Italy; New South Wales; Northern Ireland; Scotland; and Switzerland. In addition, the meeting was honoured by the personal support of M. Louis Verniers, Secretary General of Public Education in Belgium; M. N. Smelton, President of the French-speaking Belgian Section; Professor Tits, of the University of Brussels and Director of Education in Brussels; and Messrs. Dubois and Laurent, all of whom took part in discussion. At the concluding session, M. Verniers paid tribute to the work done by the Meeting, and in particular stated that the deliberations on International Understanding would be of direct value to him in his work with Unesco in that field.

The Agenda of this Meeting included:

1. The N.E.F. Mental Health in Education Programme;
2. 1956 N.E.F. World Conference on Mental Health in Education;
3. International Understanding:
 - (a) What kind of early handling (0-7 years) fosters or impedes the ability to make contact with people of other cultures in later life? (Introduced by Mr. Ben Morris.)
 - (b) The place of factual information in enhancing international understanding in school children of different ages. (Introduced by M. H. Biscompte);
 - (c) How relationships in school affect the growth of international understanding. (Introduced by Mr. D. McLean);
 - (d) Opportunities for meeting and exchange. (Introduced by Herr F. Hilker).
4. Business Meeting, including International Secretary's Report; N.E.F. Programme and Finance; Next Meeting of Section Representatives.

The main results of the meeting were:

(1) The sense of continuity in N.E.F. work and of solidarity between National Sections generated at Copenhagen was further enhanced.

(2) Difficulties facing individual Sections in their respective countries were brought out and suggestions made for overcoming them.

(3) A provisional pattern for the N.E.F. 1956 World Conference on Mental Health in Education was approved, as was a draft outline programme for recommendation to the N.E.F. Executive Board and Headquarters Guiding Committee. (This has since been accepted in principle, and a sub-committee has been appointed to work out

details of the conference which is to be held in Utrecht, with Holland as the host section.)

(4) The work of all N.E.F. Sections in the field of international understanding received a new impetus.

(5) It was agreed to recommend that the next Meeting of Section Representatives be held in 1955, and that thereafter meetings should be held bi-annually to alternate with N.E.F. International or World Conferences.

(6) The Agenda recommended (and since approved) for the 1955 Meeting of Section Representatives includes:

- (a) Re-examination of the Philosophy of the New Education;
- (b) The Education of Teachers (with special reference to UNESCO/BIE 'Recommendations on the Training of Primary School Teachers'—Geneva, 1953), a copy of which has been sent to all N.E.F. Sections for study and reporting back;
- (c) N.E.F. World Conference, Holland, 1956.

As at Copenhagen, so at Brussels, the Meeting

of Section Representatives owed much of its ability to work creatively to the insight and experience which Mr. Ben Morris brought to his task of chairing it. The N.E.F. is extremely fortunate in that Mr. Morris has agreed to act as Chairman again in 1955.

Thanks to the very generous hospitality of the French-speaking Belgian Section, the whole cost of accommodating Representatives was met by it, supported by a small grant from the Belgian Government. The Section itself was indebted to the Cité Joyeuse, which put excellent accommodation at its disposal for a very moderate sum.

The future offers many opportunities for further work in our particular spheres of action. I hope that members will find in this outline of what the N.E.F. has done during the last fifteen months encouragement to make the most of the opportunities that lie ahead.

J. B. ANNAND,
International Secretary

Directory of Schools

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Vice-Principal: Miss EDITH TIZZARD, B.A., Hons. Lond.

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Fees: £180-£210 PER ANNUM

Headmaster: J. M. AITKENHEAD, M.A. (Hons.), Ed.B

Directory of Schools—*continued*

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Headmaster : W. B. CURRY, M.A., B.Sc.

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Fees: £210-£270 per annum.

Scholarships are sometimes available, and further information about these may be obtained from the Headmaster.

BEDALES SCHOOL

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HANTS.

(Founded 1893)

Headmaster :

H. B. JACKS, M.A. (Oxon.)

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International Federation of Children's Communities

FÉDÉRATION INTERNATIONALE DES COMMUNAUTÉS D'ENFANTS
(F I C E)

*Founded by Unesco at Trogen, Switzerland, in 1948
and granted Consultative Status at Montevideo
in 1954*

FOUNDATION

In July 1948 the Reconstruction Department of Unesco called a meeting of Heads of Communities of displaced and abandoned children from all parts of Europe. Most of these Schools and Homes were working in great isolation, and many of them not only fed, clothed and educated the children, but placed them in employment and continued to provide a friendly roof in times of stress and of special rejoicing.

All the Heads of Communities found the days of the Trogen meeting, during which they were able to discuss their common problems, so reassuring and stimulating that they immediately decided to form an International Federation of Children's Communities.

AIMS

The following Aims of the Federation are taken from the description by Dr. Marie Meierhofer in the *New Era*, September–October, 1948:—

- (a) to exchange the ideas and experiences of children and adults living in communities (teachers, administrators, directors, doctors, psychologists of the several nationalities).
- (b) to supplement the training of educational workers in children's communities through theoretical and practical courses.
- (c) to collect and assess statistics.

- (d) to enlist the help of charitable organizations in the provision of materials, clothing and equipment for the communities.
- (e) to create new children's communities with agreed aims and standards.

DEVELOPMENT AND ACTIVITIES

1. NATIONAL SECTIONS exist at present in Belgium, France, Italy and Switzerland with rudimentary ones in Austria, Germany and Israel. Much the strongest of these is the French Section which has over 200 communities in its membership and which is backed by the Ministries of Education, Justice and of Health.

2. The ANNUAL GENERAL ASSEMBLIES that have been held at a variety of centres since 1948 have repeated the informal pattern of the original meeting, and are now usually attended by about 200 people directly concerned in residential work.

3. INTERNATIONAL TRAINING CAMPS have been held for staff members and arrangements made for the exchange of teachers and other workers.

4. A BULLETIN is published in French 3 or 4 times a year from Charleroi. This reprints lectures, initiates or co-ordinates research, clarifies methods and gives news of developments in individual Schools or Homes.

5. Co-ORDINATION with other bodies is maintained by Unesco Education Department, 19 Avenue Kléber, Paris, 16. Thus, work is dovetailed between FICE and the International Association of Workers for Maladjusted Children, Zanbergen, Amersfoort, Holland; and between FICE and the International Union for Child Welfare, 16 rue du Mont Blanc, Geneva, on which the non-governmental body represented in Great Britain is the Save the Children Fund.

Hitherto FICE has received a small grant from Unesco.

NOTE:

That the foundation meeting was held at the Pestalozzi Village in Switzerland has led some people to conclude that the purpose of FICE is to establish further multinational villages of the same type. But this is not so. In 1948 the communities concerned contained children of many nationalities owing to the disruptions of the war, and most of the Heads were and still are, people with an international outlook. But the Pestalozzi Village is unique in its special aims and organization. FICE is a Federation of National Sections.

INTERNATIONAL PROGRAMME FOR 1955

ANNUAL GENERAL ASSEMBLY from 29th—31st May.

At Courcelles, Charleroi, Belgium (near the Cité de l'Enfance, Marcinelle).

CONFERENCE AND EXCURSIONS IN ISRAEL from 28th July—12th August.

By invitation of Youth Aliyah.

(Return sea voyage Marseilles—Haifa—Marseilles, from £36—£60. Depart Marseilles 21st July; arrive Marseilles 19th August. FICE members guests of Youth Aliyah whilst in Israel).

ENGLISH SECTION

In England the staffs of Voluntary Homes or Special Schools have little contact with those working under a Local Authority, and even less with those in Independent boarding schools. Yet between them and their administrative officers a wealth of first-hand knowledge exists which could be shared inside this country and with workers on the continent to very great mutual advantage. To those who have made a beginning the experience of such exchanges has been extremely stimulating.

It is proposed, therefore, in consultation with the United Kingdom National Commission for Unesco, to hold a first General Meeting in May to adopt a Constitution and to form an English Section of FICE (pronounced *fee-say*).

International Executive Committee

- *M. RENE DE COOMAN, *Chairman*, BELGIUM.
Président du Conseil d'Administration de la Cité de l'Enfance,
Marcinelle, Boulevard Zoé Drion, Charleroi.
- *M. I. CORTEZ, *General Secretary*, FRANCE.
49 Champs Elysées, Paris.
- *M. ARTHUR BILL, SWITZERLAND.
Educational Director, Pestalozzi Village, Trogen, near Zurich.
- MR. KEES BOEKE, HOLLAND.
Late Principal, The Children's Community, Bilthoven.
- M. GEORGES BOURGUET, FRANCE.
Co-Director, 'Rayon de Soleil', St. Etienne de Grès, Bouches-
du-Rhône.
- *PROF. ERNESTO CODIGNOLA, ITALY.
President of the School-City of Pestalozzi, Via Mantellate 8,
Florence.
- MME. FRANÇOIS, FRANCE.
Directrice, Centre du Renouveau.
- *M. E. JOUHY, GERMANY.
Odenwaldschule, Bergstrasse, Heppenheim.
- M. HENRI JULIEN, FRANCE
Director, République d'Enfants Moulin-Vieux, par Lavalens,
Isère.
- DON ANTONIO RIVOLTA, ITALY.
Boys' Village at Santa Marinella, Rome.
- M. NICHOLAS SMELTEN, BELGIUM.
- DR. PEGGY VOLKOV, ENGLAND.
New Education Fellowship. Editor, *The New Era*, 1 Park
Crescent, London, W.1.

**Representative of National Section.*

English Provisional Committee Officers

- MISS ANN MEDLEY, *Chairman*.
Children's Officer, Gloucestershire.
- DR. MARGARET DUNCAN, *Hon. Treasurer*,
of the West Sussex Child Guidance Clinic and of the Association
of Workers for Maladjusted Children,
Mall Cottage, Chiswick Mall, London, W.4.
- MR. ANTHONY WEAVER, *Hon. Secretary*,
late Warden, Ponds Voluntary Home.
18 Campden Grove, London, W.8. *WESTern* 5886.

April 1955

THE NEW ERA

in home and school

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- Formal and Informal Arithmetic *J. B. Palframan*
- Let us Prepare our Children for
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- Human Problems in the Educa-
tional Field *E. L. Herbert*
- The Teacher's Need for Guidance *Marjorie L. Hourd*
- News and Notes—Ceylon, Denmark,
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- Book Reviews *Kenneth Barnes, L. R. C.
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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

THE TEACHING OF READING: BOOKS AND METHODS

B. M. Culham, Senior Lecturer in Education, Avery Hill College. Author of 'The First Stage Readers and Teachers' Handbook'

A HUNDRED years ago, Matthew Arnold, Her Majesty's Inspector of Schools, commented on the teaching of reading by quoting from 'reading books then in vogue':

'The crocodile is viviparous', 'quicksilver, antimony, calamine, zinc, etc., are metals', 'the slope of the desk is oblique; the corners of the door are angles'. He said, 'The right way of teaching a little boy to read is not by setting him to read such sentences as these . . . Reading books are now published which reject all such trash as the above and contain nothing but what has really some fitness for reaching the end which reading books were meant to reach.'¹

Since Matthew Arnold's day much has been said about reading books and about 'the right way of teaching a little boy to read'. One method after another has become popular. Many and varied books have been produced. The emphasis in teaching the beginnings of reading has moved from the alphabet to phonics, from phonics to words, from words to sentences and back again. Some teachers now believe in one method rather than another, though most of us take from each method anything we think it can contribute.

Surely the time has come when, instead of giving so much thought to methods, we should turn our attention to the children who have to do the learning, to the material they have to learn to read, and to the value and purpose of their learning.

Most children have to make efforts in order to acquire skill in reading. (Fewer than one in a hundred of the children I have known have read 'naturally', without apparent effort.) All children will make their best effort only when their interest is aroused. That which has meaning will arouse interest where the meaningless will not. Initial effort has to be supported by repetition or drill,

the amount of which is not the same for all children. The amount of repetition required by one child leads to 'overlearning' and boredom in another, if we impose it alike on all. All children are encouraged to further efforts if they achieve success.

In learning, children gain impressions by seeing, by hearing, by doing. Some will retain more surely and recall more readily what they see, some what they hear, some what they do, though there is often no clear division between these ways of learning. Success on the part of the children will depend to some extent on our recognition of their particular way of learning, but more of their reading will depend, ultimately, upon seeing and doing than upon hearing. (Reading aloud may have its place but it is by no means the whole of reading.) Children all form habits and these habits, for better or for worse, become part of their learning. Useful habits set free the children's energy for further progress. Useless ones waste energy and hamper progress.

All the time children are learning to read they are forming attitudes to reading. On these attitudes will depend any future use they will make of reading, and all their appreciation of its value and purpose. Some of our children are less intelligent than others and some are from less helpful home backgrounds. Whatever their circumstances children will apply such intelligence as they have to learning to read, so surely as they see that it is necessary. Therefore, 'from the day the child enters school he should find books a natural, necessary, and important part of his life'.²

Since Matthew Arnold's day, many changes have come about among school books and the 'viviparous crocodile' has fallen out of fashion. However, in 1908, John Dewey wrote about 'the utter triviality of the contents of our school

¹ Reports on Elementary Schools, 1852-1882. Matthew Arnold, H.M.S.O.

² Language. Some Suggestions for Teachers. Ministry of Education, 1954. H.M.S.O.

primers and first readers . . . Take up any few and say 'how much is there in the ideas presented, worthy of respect from an intelligent child of six years?'¹ Then, in 1954, the Ministry of Education placed on record that while 'some schools use graded "readers", nearly all now try to provide in addition, or instead, a quantity of attractive books of the kind found in educated homes'.²

Some attempt should be made to assess reading material in relation to our knowledge of children. Such lessons as: 'Lo, I go'; 'I go on an ox'; 'If it be so, so be it', were contrived to bring reading within reach of the children, to make it easy. The teacher's task, then, was to make it interesting. Children learned in order to please their teacher. They were learning a school subject which they must have unlearned later in order to recognize reading as a meaningful part of their everyday life. To-day, instead of using school primers, many schools base their teaching of reading on the everyday experiences of the children themselves so that interest once aroused goes forward in and out of school. Life in school is meaningful as is life outside.

Knowing the need for repetition, some teachers use books containing a limited vocabulary with many permutations of the same few words. This practice imposes on all the children the same degree of repetition, robs the material of interest and presents reading as a meaningless task. Many teachers have discovered that if a book has meaning to children who are beginning to read, they will go through it again and again. Repetition in this case is natural and often self imposed.

If the whole book has meaning, children will learn it quickly and gain confidence as they are able to repeat it. This success can be followed up by drill in words from it which are familiar and friendly as parts of a meaningful whole.

To cause children to look and say until they had learned was once thought to be the way to teach reading, but we now know that learning requires something more than looking and saying and that to read is to interpret, not necessarily to say. It is several years, now, since I heard strange sounds coming from a classroom where all the children were chanting together what sounded like 'Why, oh, you, you; eh are ee are; . . .', and looking at books which were called, ironically in their case, *The Radiant Way*. In the choice of

material and in the ways of using it, care is taken by many teachers to ensure that there are opportunities for drawing, writing, making and doing as aspects of reading in the early stages. The emphasis is upon words which the children can relate to objects and creatures, known to themselves and represented by themselves in their drawing, and upon sentences and phrases understood by them through their own experience which means, often, through their play. The actual saying aloud is reduced to a minimum by many teachers because they are determined not to establish a dependence upon voicing the words, with the slow rate of reading which accompanies such a habit.

Reading aloud can all too easily become a hindrance to interpretation, not only because it makes speed impossible, but also because it requires a listener. Many children have come to know reading as something they do to be heard. 'Will you hear me read?' serves quite often as a greeting to a visitor or a new teacher. Requiring to be heard, so far as it is necessary at all, must give place as soon as possible to reading in order to find out the meaning. So must such habits as demanding a tick for the next page read. Perhaps more harmful still is the giving of a sound value to each letter when a strange word is met. So much more often the new word would be recognised and learned through its context than through the sounds of its separate letters. The more useful habit in this case is sometimes to read with the teacher and sometimes to be told the difficult word, with an emphasis on its meaning, as part of the whole text, rather than on its sound. There is certainly a place for 'intelligent guessing' in the interpretation of a language so seldom conforming to rules as English. This quality of our language was recognized long ago in connection with the teaching of reading. (In 1823, Pierpont said, 'reading like conversation is learned from example rather than by rule'.)³ In some schools reading is one of the school subjects and children learn to 'do' their 'reading' without learning what reading means. In one such school was Christopher, who had learned to read before he was five. To Christopher the reading lesson had no meaning. He was 'on page six' of his primer and had not yet discovered any connection between the six pages and his pre-school reading. He was bored with the reading

¹ Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading. Edmund Burke Huey. Macmillan, New York.

² Language. H.M.S.O.

³ Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading. Huey.

lesson and, feeling his way towards some possibly more interesting pastime, he came home one day and asked his mother to teach him to read backwards. He explained that the 'backwards readers' went away from the reading lesson to the Head Teacher's room. This habit of associating reading with the part of the day that has no meaning must be broken before we can accept Huey's definition, 'to read is to think, each in his own way, the meaning that the page suggests'.¹ Learning by doing is a feature in many of our schools to-day and opportunities are given to children to gain active experience. In some schools the curriculum is thought of 'in terms of activity and experience'.² In some, activity is included on the day's time-table. Unfortunately it happens that in some schools part of the day is given to a choice of activities and interests while another part is set aside for reading. Reading becomes something a child is made to do instead of something he chooses and enjoys. This difficulty is avoided by some teachers by the provision of reading material that gives rise to activities and interests, such as instructions for making toys, recipes for cooking, patterns and advice about knitting and sewing, and books for reference on a variety of topics; also by reading with groups of children while the other children are busy in their own ways. Thus reading becomes one of the activities and interests and not a separate subject or 'skill'. The time-table that separates 'basic skills' from 'creative activities' suggests that there is a skill called 'reading' which is distinct from creativeness. The habit we wish children to form is a habit of creative reading. It will depend largely upon our choice of reading material and our planning of the school day.

In trying to assess the results of our teaching it would be well if we considered the children's attitude to reading rather than simply their reading age by a standardized test, or their ability to read Book Six. A 'reading age' tells us something about a child, and the ability to read Book Six represents some degree of skill, but neither carries with it any guarantee that the child will find profit and enjoyment from reading and books. Neither is of real use to a child unless he feels right about reading, unless he believes it to be worth while. While this is true of all children it shows clearly from time to time among backward children. It is inevitable that some

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children will be less successful than others in learning to read, and the causes of backwardness include some which are beyond the teacher's power to remove, such as poor intelligence and some of the difficulties arising from unsatisfactory home conditions. However, it has been found that a backward child may be set on the road to reading if we can show him that reading is related to some interest which is vital to him.

Peter was nine and according to a standardized test he was a non-reader. A new teacher asked him why he could not read. 'Because I don't like reading', he replied. 'Then what do you like?' asked the teacher. 'Boats, sir. I'm crazy about boats.' So the teacher found a book about boats and he and the boy looked through it, the teacher reading some passages. Then he asked the boy to tell him some words 'belonging to boats', starting him off with liner and lifeboat. The words the boy suggested were: mast, sails, propeller, steamer, crane, anchor, paddle, steam, sailor, and the teacher wrote these into Peter's word book. The next day more words were added in the same way: crew, captain, pilot, skipper, Admiral, look out, gunner, battleship. A week later, after a visit to a museum, the list included:

¹ Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading. Huey.

² Nursery and Infant Report. Board of Education. 1935.

museum, kayak, rigging, outrigger, fish. Once these words were entered into his book, the boy could read them back in any order. He had, in fact, a word recognition of at least twenty-four words, once his interest was discovered and a change for the better had been brought about in his attitude to reading. How often we have proved that, until a child has some reason for wanting to read, our time and energy are wasted in trying to make him learn. How many hours have been passed by children and teachers with books in front of them, with how little progress in some cases, because unsuitable material has contributed to their distaste and confirmed their disability.

At this moment a Bill is being read in Parliament, dealing with Horror Comics. Whatever views we may hold about such procedure we are reminded by it of the need to teach children not only to read but to discriminate as they read. Martin, thirteen, home from boarding school, was asked whether the school made any rule about the reading of comics. He replied that there was no rule, and that he could not imagine anyone who would be interested in comics and so the rule would be rather silly. This is the view of a boy of outstanding intelligence and encouraging home background. Many of our children depend, much more than Martin would, on the opportunities we give them to form tastes in reading. We must, therefore, find books that will appeal to children, books to which they will learn to go 'to secure necessary and useful information, to exercise the imagination and enlarge the experience. At all stages there should be a great many books about¹ and among the books there should be great variety. Some children aged eight were asked to say which were their favourite books from the school library. Their choice was recorded and it was found to include large books and small, thin books and thick, books with pictures and books without, books with coloured pictures and books illustrated in black and white. Book reviews written by these children showed a taste for the funny story, the sad one, the true story, the fairy tale, and the book of poems, according to the individual writer. Without variety it will be impossible for a number of different children to learn, by their own experience, to assess books and establish good taste in reading.

As we teach reading, our goal is moving forward, and so no fixed and final method will ever

be suitable. Our language is changing in content as new discoveries are made and new relationships established. It is changing in form, with progress in the cinema, radio, and television. When everyone can be reached by propaganda of all kinds it is more necessary than ever to discover, not only a technique for reading, but a means of establishing right attitudes. While there may be a tendency to rest on such entertainment as the radio and television provide instead of making the effort to read, these forms of language themselves will in their turn depend upon creativeness in reading. Ability to read for sheer pleasure, or for discovering information, or for any other reason, carries with it ability to 'comment sensibly on it and pass on to other relevant ideas suggested by the reading.'² Such an attitude of constructive criticism towards reading can only be established if it is within the children's power to interpret what they read. The early stages are largely responsible for establishing habits and attitudes and this attitude of constructive criticism cannot be found while children are taught that reading is the 'interpretation' of print into meaningless syllables. The placing together of syllables to produce so called simple reading books arises out of a consideration of teaching methods apart from a proper definition of reading. Such reading books are not properly related to the purpose they should serve.

Progress in the production of reading books has certainly been made over the past hundred years and many changes have come about. Each change in its turn has made its contribution, but none has been so good that it could entirely reshape our knowledge of the teaching of reading. It has sometimes happened, too, that the latest books or series of books have been inferior to those already in use. Every change has not been wholly for the better.

In a few cases, work with illiterate members of the Forces has led people to believe that a revival of phonic methods would be wise. These people have overlooked the fact that almost any method will succeed with adults once they have become convinced of the value of reading. If we would have children reading, and able to profit by their reading in their youth, we must show them the value and purpose of reading through our choice of suitable, varied and meaningful books.

A method is a means to an end. If we would

¹ Language. H.M.S.O.

² *Ibid.*

Can they read? OR do they only *IMAGINE* they can, to be disillusioned later when an unfamiliar book puts it to the test?

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make progress, we must keep the end in sight. 'The débris and obtrusive technique'¹ of reading methods will not then be allowed to cover up their purpose and vitality.

It is helpful in the development of language, if children are encouraged to imitate and to join in conversation. Here the best results come with the least amount of patronising baby talk on the part of the adults. It is the same with reading. The best results have often been achieved without 'methods' and with very few books at the school 'reader' level, but with opportunities for children and teacher to read together and to discuss together in an atmosphere of confidence. This requires that the teaching of reading shall take place individually and in small groups. To-day our classes are large, especially where there are Infants and young Juniors who still need help with their reading. There are, nevertheless, many teachers who plan so that much of the children's day is spent in group work. Some children are employing themselves happily while some are being helped to read. Much of the reading is spontaneous, part of an activity or interest as it

is with ourselves in adult life. 'Skills' are not separated from 'creative activities' and one of the most creative of the activities of the children is their reading. The happiest children are those who find the adventure of promotion from the Infant to the Junior School, supported by continuity; and group methods which are often to be found in Infant Schools are, in fact, more practicable in Junior Schools because children are capable of increasing responsibility and initiative as they grow older.

There is little doubt that the folk who are contributing most to progress in the teaching of reading are the teachers themselves; and especially those who continue to learn about children as they teach them and who keep in mind the value and purpose of reading.

'Reading is the means by which the world does a large part of its work; the printed page is a contrivance used for hours daily by tens of millions of people. The slightest improvement, either in the page or in the method of reading, is the means of rendering a great service to the human race.'²

¹ Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading. Huey.

² Ibid.

FORMAL AND INFORMAL ARITHMETIC IN INFANT AND JUNIOR SCHOOLS

J. B. Palfreman

LONG before the age of compulsory school attendance most, if not all, children obtain an acquaintance with many of the basic concepts of arithmetic. This is almost always informal in the sense that there is no deliberate attempt at a serious and organized development of the subject. Since children vary so greatly as individuals and since their opportunities vary also, they will begin school already very unequal in their knowledge of number and in their ability to use number.

In an infants' school the informal work is filled out and extended in a variety of ways. Number rhymes are learnt; different objects such as beads, acorns, sticks are sorted and counted; coloured beads are threaded; simple games such as skittles are played with great earnestness and in a highly competitive spirit. In a wider field experience of measuring and weighing is obtained and much attention is given to money. All this informal work is great fun for both children and teacher, but the aims that are quietly pursued require for their attainment a great deal of vigorous mental work. Sooner or later must come to every child the ability to recognize at sight each of the written symbols which we call digits; a realization of the order in size of these digits and a recognition of the numerical size of each digit measured in terms of beads, counters, books, pencils, children; in fact in groups of any of the common objects of the classroom. So long as the digits are closely associated with real objects the children will readily link one group with another, e.g. two beads and four beads make six beads or five beads taken away from seven beads leave two beads. This is not addition or subtraction as we know it, but it is a very necessary stage of development in arithmetic.

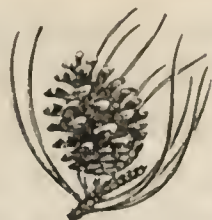
In the infant school two more stages remain for the abler children to reach but less able children will reach them most probably in the junior school. The first of these stages is to discard reality in the form of beads, counters, etc., and to write only symbols as is done in normal written work. It is a much bigger step to realize that a number may stand for a group of similar objects and that, for example groups of six apples or six

boys or six pennies are all alike in that each is a group of six similar objects.

So far we have suggested that informal work with beads, etc., is the necessary preliminary for all young children and that this informal work may have to continue throughout most, if not all, of the two years of the infant school course. For some children it will have to continue well into the junior school. In reading there is a mental age of 'reading readiness' which has been determined at about $6\frac{1}{2}$ years. It is very probable that there is also some mental age before which the working of formal abstract sums on paper is unwise if not harmful. If this is so it is equally likely that early sums should be money sums for children find it easier to think, to say and to write $4d. + 2d. = 6d.$ than to do $4 + 2 = 6$. At the same time they would do very easy subtractions treating these from the beginning as closely related to addition.

By the end of two years in the infant school all the children will have had a great deal of experience with a variety of materials in discovering simple number relationships up to a maximum of 20. They will also have experimented in measuring objects, weighing objects, determining the capacity of a variety of containers and have acquired a simple arithmetical vocabulary appropriate to their knowledge and understanding.

In the first years of the junior school arises the necessity to make quite sure of some of the number relationships with which the children are familiar. The number bonds must be learnt; first to a total of 10 and later to a total of 20, and they must be learnt so thoroughly that the response is accurate and automatic. A very great deal of practice over a long period of time will be needed and it is best to do a little often rather than a lot at long intervals. At the same time the development of skills in abstract and formal written work in addition and subtraction can be continued. It seems from investigation that it may be best to practise the process of addition or subtraction in different fields at the same time rather than treat addition or subtraction of number as something distinct and different from that of money, or length, or weight.



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Informal work will still be necessary and there should be a considerable extension of the measuring, weighing, etc., of earlier years. A greater degree of accuracy would be expected and a wider experience of the tables of weights and measures. The classroom shop or post office can afford ample opportunity for experience of work with money. Many of the normal activities of the class or the school will provide valuable experiences in number work and a great deal of arithmetical data can be obtained from class attendances (and absences), milk returns, dinner money, class National Savings, weather records, etc. From this work would come problems or 'sums in words' and if the reading ability of the children is adequate the problems could be written down as well as spoken. Beginning at about the mental age of $8\frac{1}{2}$ years children are keenly interested in number in the everyday activities outside the confines of the school and many teachers produce interesting and worthwhile exercises based on work going on in the immediate vicinity of the school. From about this same mental age children are greatly interested in numbers as numbers and enjoy making up series of numbers, identifying odd and even numbers, simple factors, multiples, etc.

All this informal work leads readily to an appreciation of the values of multiplication and division as better or improved ways of adding or subtracting (in certain circumstances). As with number bonds, the multiplication tables must be learnt and again thoroughness is most important. In addition to these tables the children must be quite sure of the simpler equivalents in money, length, weight, etc. With these items committed to memory the normal sums are not difficult, as methods of procedure are simple to follow if the basic facts are known. In general 50 per cent. of the errors made in any form of computation by children are errors in number bonds or tables. These errors can and should be eliminated.

As the children pass through the junior school they should obtain a clearer understanding of the meaning of the written work that they do as well as a greater precision in their work. The child who could once distinguish between 3 beads and 4 beads could later distinguish between 3 and 4. He should now be able to distinguish between such quantities as $\frac{3}{4}$ " and $\frac{3}{8}$ " or $\frac{3}{4}$ oz. and $\frac{3}{8}$ oz. and between $\frac{3}{4}$ and $\frac{3}{8}$. He should also know why the first one is greater than the second and know

that it is twice the size of the second one. He should get clear for himself the ideas underlying such terms as area, perimeter, circumference, average, percentage, etc., etc., through a variety of informal activities some time before he is required to learn the formal methods of obtaining an area, a perimeter, etc.

The mechanical working of many sums of identical pattern is useful as a drill in a particular

process and no more. It is highly probable that for the sake of mechanical accuracy we often ignore the deep interest that children have in number as it occurs in their daily lives. When they are given a wide and rich experience of number in 'real' situations together with appropriate and limited practice and drill exercises their interest and appreciation quickens and their accuracy does not suffer.

LET US PREPARE OUR CHILDREN FOR SCHOOL LIFE

Madame J. Morgoulis of the Laboratoire de Bio-Psychologie de l'Enfant

IRENE is five years old, the fourth of a family of five children; she has been at the nursery school for six months and does not like it.

During school time Irene sits idle, absent-minded, gazing at nothing. If the teacher pays her particular attention she does make a timid attempt at the task required of her, but as soon as she is no longer supported by the personal interest of the teacher she stops working and sits still sucking her thumb or her pencil. If she needs a pencil or a paint-brush, she will wait until her teacher notices or until another child brings her what she needs. She will never take the initiative of going to fetch it or of asking for it.

She hardly ever looks to see what the others are doing, never says anything to any of them and only barely answers if they speak to her. After a certain time her school fellows take less and less interest in her. Her only activity is to join in when the whole class has to repeat sentences all together.

At break she does not play; sometimes she tags along after the teacher who is supervising, but more often she crouches in a corner to keep out of the way of the others who are running about and inventing games of their own. She cries uncomplainingly if anyone bumps into her.

Irene likes school less and less, and she makes such a fuss about going in the morning that her mother often gives in and keeps her at home. So she no longer comes to school regularly and things are not going at all well.

Why is Irene so withdrawn? Why, since she was so pleased at the idea of going to school in September, has she been so disappointed whilst most of the children of her own age find school a great pleasure?

In her very early childhood Irene was delicate; she ate very little and with difficulty. She suffered from infantile eczema and her mother had to spend a good deal of time tending her. Irene has never been able to put up with being separated from her mother who, on her side, feels that the child cannot do without her. In the courtyard of her block of flats Irene never plays with the other children but stays near her mother alone with her toys. These she would willingly lend but does not dare to. At home she has no personal activity, her whole life is bound up in that of her mother. She helps her mother but never starts anything on her own, not even doing the obvious things for herself.

Irene has a big sister of fourteen whom she loves very much because she tells her stories and looks after her as much as her mother does. Thus Irene has never been able to make a personal contact with the world outside but only through her mother or her sister. So when she got to school without either of them she felt lost. Not being accustomed to make contact with other children of her own age she has not been able to get support from them as most other children do, and she has turned in on herself. When anyone asks Irene what she wants to be she answers: 'A little baby and sit on mummy's knee.'

* * *

Paul is five. He is the eldest of a family of four children, has been at the nursery school for five months and does not like it. He did not do anything there until December. He, too, sits still; he does not suck his thumb, but he does not join in any class activity. He refuses even to try anything new, pretending that he cannot do it. He does not try to imitate or copy what his

school fellows are doing; he waits almost motionless for the end of the day 'to see Mummy', and has no contact with the other children. At break he runs about alone or watches the others playing. Sometimes, but not often, he goes to find his little sister.

At home he is less passive. He is glad to play with his younger sister but it is always she who invents the game. He is the big brother who gives in to her. When anyone suggests he should do something he always answers: 'I don't want to, I can't.' His mother tries to jog him into activity; she finds him slow and helps him in everything he does, so as to get things done more quickly. She finds him very loving but rather clinging and confesses that he sometimes irritates her: 'His endless questions are exhausting.'

Paul, thus rebuffed, is discouraged and ends by never daring to start anything for he has the impression that everything he does is inadequate. In the courtyard of his block of flats he stays with his own family and does not seek out the companionship of children of his own age. He does not see much of his father, who is very much taken up with his professional work and can spare little time for his family life.

When Paul was four his mother made a first attempt to take him to school, but since he did not like it very much she decided to keep him at home during the winter. When she wanted to take him back to school after the Easter holidays he made an enormous fuss about it.

By September, Paul was almost five and it was decided that this time he really must go to school. Paul gave in to this new test though without pleasure, but he comes to school very regularly. So towards December he was beginning to work a little more, at any rate in the tasks that were done regularly every day.

In February the teacher praised him very much for one of his paintings. His mother got him to write a little at home, and teacher recognizing that he was capable of getting on gave him frequent encouragement, and Paul's attitude to school is beginning to change. He takes an interest in what the child next to him is doing, and talks to him. At break he does join in groups at play though he is still a spectator rather than a participant.

* * *

A child when he first goes to school is bound to meet with difficulties. These difficulties will be

overcome very easily if he is already used to acting on his own and if he can draw support from his friends. Indeed what most children do when they are in difficulties is to copy what one of their neighbours is doing. If a child before he comes to school has made no real contact with other children of his own age he lacks the principal means of overcoming the embarrassment which he will meet at the beginning of his school life.

That is why what the child does before coming to school and the habits he forms can either ease or make more difficult his adaptation. The way in which a child behaves in the courtyard before ever he comes to school enables one to foretell how he will adapt there. Instead of forbidding children to play together because there is a risk of their exchanging playthings and losing them, or because they may get into mischief, it is really essential that the child should already be able to profit from the presence of other children before he comes to school. School will develop his social feelings and his self-reliance by widening his chances of social contact, but if he is incapable, even when safely at home with his mother, of establishing relationships with other children, he will find it painful and impossible to adapt himself to school.

A child should also be able to do things for himself and on his own. His mother should never interfere except to support what he is trying to do. By the time he is four he can already do simple errands such as buying bread or milk. At first he will do them under his mother's eye by going shopping with her, and then quite alone. He will thus acquire a certain self-reliance which will serve him very well at school.

In cases where the child is unduly attached to his mother he should always be prepared before he goes to school by being helped to live for short intervals (varying according to his own needs but growing progressively longer) without his mother and in a small group of children. It is really essential to help him to have contact with two or three children before letting him loose in a community of forty and sometimes fifty. To send a child to school suddenly and without preparation is for certain children, who find it difficult either to be apart from their mother or to make contact with other children of their own age, just as harmful as a too sudden weaning.

HUMAN PROBLEMS IN THE EDUCATIONAL FIELD¹

E. L. Herbert, Department of Education, University of Manchester

THE development of Educational Psychology in recent years has led to such greater understanding of the problems of childhood that one feels disappointed to find that this increased knowledge has not succeeded in solving more of the problems connected with teaching. This disappointment is particularly striking among many young teachers who have left training colleges or departments two or three years earlier, fired with enthusiasm for 'the new methods', only to find that they have been unable to apply them in practice. The danger of such a discovery is that they may give up all attempts to approach their work through the psychological knowledge and insight they had acquired; so, deciding 'to throw away the baby with the bathwater', they return to the old-fashioned, authoritarian methods used and advocated by some of their older colleagues. In these extreme cases no attempt is made to *adapt* the new methods. Only two possible alternatives are considered: free *or* authoritarian.

This 'black-or-white' policy, too often found in the educational world, reflects an attitude which is necessarily anti-progressive, whether *white* or *black* is chosen at any particular moment. Fortunately, however, a number of young teachers preserve their enthusiasm and achieve a great enough measure of success with new methods to wish to pursue the use of them and to adapt them to their practical conditions.

These different ways of behaving suggest that failure or success does not lie in the methods but in the personality of the teacher who uses them. It might be said that they 'suit' some and not others—which is true of all methods. But if what modern educational psychology asks of us is that we should give the child more liberty and surrender some of our authority, we can pose the problem differently, and ask why some can and some cannot achieve this double purpose. We begin to realize that any psychological research that ignores one partner in this two-way relationship and concentrates solely on the other neces-

sarily achieves incomplete results. Yet even after applying himself to the child and to the teacher separately, the educational psychologist has not completed his task. He has to turn to the field of group dynamics in order to consider the relations of the people who meet under the specific conditions of the educational world.

OUR individual attitudes are the product of the groups to which we belong and have belonged. Family, school, church, the scout company, and so forth all have an influence on the child: to the extent that we recognize this, we

understand him. We know how largely the 'home background' determines his behaviour or misbehaviour. The standards of this 'home background' are often verbalized as axioms; 'such and such is done (or not done)', 'your mother is your best friend', 'men (or women) don't understand these things', 'teachers are too strict—or always right', and so on. Such axioms influence our

behaviour, and every realization that they are not universal, every need to revise them, comes as a shock. The shock is necessary and it is salutary as the prelude to every stage in development and as a means of improving relations with others. Often, however, the challenge is disregarded, the protection of the integrated axiom is sought and the need to grow up is ignored, if the process appears too painful. In all cases it must be softened by the provision of compensations. It is almost a commonplace that if the dangers of growing up—of becoming freer—appear too great, the child will regress to an earlier stage and to more dependent behaviour.

This process, which can be observed in a fairly simple form in children, is very much complicated for adults because of their accumulated experience of past and present groups. The early groups mentioned above, and the family in particular, still have their effect, and any difficulties that the

The picture of Human Relations in the educational field which I shall draw in the following article may seem crude, since it intentionally disregards individuals. I suggest, however, that the trends described are present in all educational situations, though they are overcome and modified in varying degree through the insight of individuals.

E. L. H.

¹ This paper, like Miss Hourd's which follows it, was given at an International Conference for Inspectors of Schools which was held by the New Education Fellowship at Chichester, from April 14th-22nd, 1955.—Ed.

individual has encountered at every stage of his development have left their mark. They have provided a model, a pattern for solving, evading or struggling with new difficulties. Thus if an individual, because of various factors in his upbringing and environment, has overcome the problems of adolescence by repression, i.e. by running away from them, he is likely to return to this method in order to solve the emotional problems of his adult life. If he has been made secure enough to deal with them, to overcome them by facing them squarely, he will have acquired the necessary confidence to do so in new situations. But regression to earlier emotional patterns will always occur for a while. Growing up is not a smooth, uniformly forward process. It can be described as going up a staircase, with the possibility of stopping at every landing. But if the next flight appears too steep, we may give up and go down to a lower landing. We are familiar with this phenomenon in the child who enters the grammar school after having been in the top form of his junior school; the same occurs when the adolescent passes from the all-powerful sixth form to the university, as it does also with the cocky third-year undergraduate who enters the department of Education and finds himself confronted with a new, earnest and difficult situation. Because of my work with such students, I am particularly aware of the shock that induces their change of attitude, their humility and constant search for advice and—although they do not know it—for protection.

These new groups encountered by the individual—school, college, training departments, societies, often halls of residence, new towns—all have their tacit or verbalized axiomatic truths which must be accepted if one is to become a member of the group. The protection of the group is the reward for such conformity. Fortunately there is also in the individual a desire to assert himself and the resultant behaviour of the conflict between assertiveness and conformity is a compromise between these two equally 'internal' wishes. No one but *himself* forces him either to conform or to dissent from the behaviour of any particular group.

These axiomatic, taken-for-granted attitudes are particularly strong in professional groups. They are the source of all 'shop' talk. General statements about the sins of parents, of headmasters, of pupils, of inspectors are accepted

without challenge in ordinary common room talk. These are comfortable, but to act on them without examination is always dangerous. It is the main aim of interpretative discussion groups, such as are conducted by the Tavistock Institute of Human Relations, to challenge these. Since they are carefully preserved group *phantasies*, the group may defend them for a while but when at last some individual becomes aware that, 'of course there are exceptions', the discussion returns to the *reality* plane and so can go forward. This process is eased if the group contains sub-groups; for example, in a group of teachers of varied status from different types of school the specific attitudes of, say, the headmistresses may be detected and attacked by other members, those of junior school teachers by grammar school teachers, and so on. They have enough in common to remain a group but one prejudice cancels another, and glimpses of reality appear through the chinks.

THESE sub-groups that appear in *ad hoc* groups, specifically gathered for the purpose of studying group dynamics appear in more complicated patterns in structured groups such as the school. There they take the form of a hierarchy to which we must now turn.

Beginning at the bottom we find first of all the pupils' group face to face with the teachers' group. These two have many things in common but the seniority of the latter means that the question of *their authority* with its counterpart, *obedience* on the part of the pupils assumes great importance. Although pupils may dislike authority and fight against it, and teachers often have to fight in order to obtain obedience, both groups are in collusion in supporting the double stereotype of the authoritarian teacher and obedient pupil—as observation of children 'playing school' clearly shows. And the teacher resents the disobedient pupil no more than the latter dislikes the over-indulgent teacher. The situation is an ambivalent one in which the same qualities give both pleasure and pain. The teacher's authority satisfies the pupil's need for dependency by giving him a sense of security at the same time as it gives him an outlet for his aggressive impulses; the pupil's obedience gives the teacher a sense of power at the same time as it satisfies his wish to be loved by his dependent pupil. To the overall, complete pupils-teachers' group these

respective attitudes represent conformity to the group ideal—an element of unity.

Similar patterns recur among other groups within the school hierarchy. The staff as a whole are ambivalent towards the Head who wields authority and their reactions are reminiscent on occasion of those of pupils towards their teachers. Within the staff there are found other sub-groupings. Among the most frequent we notice, for instance: younger and older teachers; Science and Arts teachers; formal and practical subject teachers; married and single teachers; form masters and subject masters; (in mixed schools) men and women teachers.

All these differences emerge in various circumstances either in alliances or in attacks and the whole of the rest of the staff may sometimes combine to make a scapegoat of one group, whereas at other times the whole staff may be divided. If the dissensions—and alliances—are too noticeable they may drag with them partisans out of the pupils' groups. A wise Head—i.e. a good leader—can help good relations by giving all the various groups their full measure of independence and initiative. They need some authority from him in order to feel secure. Under such conditions each group feels that it is needed and peace can reign—but complete agreement and blind loyalty are not desirable. The variety of attitudes and of points of view enables progress to be made, since the realization of both differences and similarities is needed in a healthy community. The variety of the sub-groups involved—among pupils as well as among the staff—is certainly an obstacle to complete authority of superiors in the hierarchy towards their inferiors, but it fortunately increases insight into problems by providing points of view that each sub-group in isolation could never have discovered.

Whatever dissensions might exist within the school community, any outside menace, whether real or imaginary, makes it united. Among such menaces one must reckon all outside groups within the educational world that may come in contact with the school: parents, inspectors and even, though to a lesser degree, tutors from training colleges or departments—in fact all who have right of entry into the school. The more authority is invested in these outsiders the more united the front that is presented against them—not because they are known to do harm but merely because of the group phantasy that they may harm or at least disturb it. They represent a

potential attack on the independence of the community. The *cave canem* of one's schooldays at the approach of the teacher is re-enacted by the school staff at the approach of the inspector, simply because authority is invested in him. Of course, the inspector resents this: his intentions are kind, he wants to help but this unreasoned mistrust is the price he has to pay and the undoing of it the first task he has to perform.

I am familiar with a similar though not identical situation when visiting students in training. However critical the school staff may be of the students, they generally 'protect' them against their tutors. The students themselves are in much the same position as teachers who are visited by inspectors. One may tell them to ignore one, to behave just as if one were not there, the words have no effect, nor could have any, for the *reality situation* has changed. The grouping is no longer the same. Instead of a group—the class—face to face with a leader (good or bad) we now have a three-way situation and other sub-groupings occur. Sometimes the class 'sides' with the student against the tutor; at worst, it 'sides with the tutor' in letting down the student. Whichever happens, the situation cannot be 'normal'. And this is felt by the incomer (tutor or inspector) as much as it is by the student or teacher.

DOES this mean that inspecting presents insurmountable obstacles? Clearly not, since much is achieved, but success depends on open recognition of the problem. I have found frank discussion of this double strain extremely useful in dealing with students; students hear with surprise but with a feeling of relief that their tutor, in spite of his position of authority, feels the strain of the situation: it then becomes their joint task to overcome it. The relationship is put on a *reality* basis instead of remaining at the stage of *phantasy*, that is to say, at the stage where all persons in authority are seen in the light of the stereotype created by the individual in an 'inferior' position. Reality tells us that we are now dealing with an *adult*, therefore, in *human* terms with an equal. The differences still exist but they are professional and not fundamental. I, the tutor, am older than my student. I have greater experience and knowledge of the subject he is teaching, but on all other counts he may be my equal or even by superior. He may, for instance, have a higher I.Q. than I have, yet be less good a teacher. In other words my 'superior'

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position does not make me a superior being in all things. The superiority as far as it goes is *real* but there is a margin for identification between my student and myself. The student—or teacher—under inspection rarely realizes this subtle situation. He is so awed that he has a dim feeling of the presence of an ill-defined but all-powerful authority; yet this feeling of awe may turn to, or even be accompanied by, a certain contempt at the discovery of any failing in the person in authority. Once more, we find the black-or-white emotional attitude which unfortunately is felt as 'rational' one.

The situation becomes more complicated if the tutor or inspector tends to regard the person he inspects as his inferior in *all* respects. The trouble is that these attitudes are complementary and each tends to provoke its counterpart in the other. The shy, frightened student irritates the tutor and gives him a feeling of guilt that may result in aggressiveness; on the other hand, the aggressive tutor frightens the student and a double feeling of anxiety sets in, due to the unconscious knowledge that emotion has taken over and that one is not in control of one's reactions.

The emotional situation I have just described

is a very common one and is to be found at the bottom of all 'discipline difficulties'. The teacher's position is a frightening one since he is alone—an individual—in contact with a group. The members of the children's group can support each other; the members of the teacher's group are not present: he has to defend himself alone if trouble arises. We all know that a certain amount of anxiety is present in all teachers, especially in beginners, and also that this anxiety reappears in circumstances that involve the presence of a third party. People who are in charge of teachers' training—and I do not except myself—bear a share of responsibility in this, for we tend nowadays to make our students feel that 'the child is always right', and they do not see our own behaviour in front of a class as they did in the days of pupil-teachers. When left alone with his class the student has to establish some kind of understanding with his class, but he is never sure that this will be approved of by the stranger.

HOWEVER, even when there is no stranger present, we know that problems arise in the course of establishing relations with pupils, and particularly when these pupils are at the adolescent stage. We are all familiar with the troublesome middle school form in grammar and secondary modern schools. In the latter, the trouble may be even worse in the leaving year but the prospect of being rid of it in the near future makes it a little less unbearable. Such forms can be described as the black sheep of the school. They are generally regarded with dislike by the staff and with a mixture of dislike and envy by the rest of the school. They are usually less intellectually able than the rest—the 'C' stream—and their attitude is one of defiance.

We know, not only from personal experience but from an investigation such as Wickman's described in *Teacher's Attitudes and Children's Behavior* that pupils' insolence and defiance are the forms of behaviour which teachers can least accept. Defiance, especially if it is supported by the class, is felt to undermine the teacher's authority, so that he becomes insecure and anxious. As a result, he retaliates and teaching goes by the board while teacher and class fight on the emotional plane. The amount of such trouble the teacher encounters is in inverse ratio to the sense of security fostered in him by his earlier history, his upbringing and his later experience.

If the teacher is free—or almost free—from

this anxiety—he will recognize that adolescents, especially the less able ones—have a *legitimate* grievance, for thirteen or thereabouts is the age of initiation in primitive societies, after which the adolescent acquires full adult's rights. Out of economic necessity we have retarded the age of marriage, but adolescents need compensations for the loss of these privileges. The more able among them have them in the form of intellectual achievements and success. For the less able, there is nothing but the hope of leaving school and becoming a grown-up member of society as soon as possible. But all of them as long as they are at school are expected to conform to the stereotype of the school *child*. Yet we want them to behave more sensibly since they have attained the 'age of reason', and in the same breath we tell them, 'You are too young to do this or that' and, 'You are too old to behave so childishly.'

The situation is emphasized by the fact that all adults have a secret but perfectly *natural* envy of the adolescent. Since, in addition, adolescents are irritating, the measures of repression taken in school seem to be justified. Schoolchildren they are and schoolchildren they must remain. In England the imposition of school uniform is unrelaxed, at least until they come to the sixth form; by this time it is too late, and they are ready to join the ranks of the reactionaries. They then become even more strict than the staff towards the 'naughty' and irrepressible middle school forms. Thus, it appears that in one aspect education is a conspiracy for *preventing* children from growing up.

In proportion as the difference in age between pupils and their teachers increases, the problem becomes more manageable. It becomes easier for the teacher to assume a substitute parent rôle and to get love from his or her pupils. The result is seen in a much better and friendlier attitude in infant schools and in the younger forms of junior schools than in the older ones. It is no accident that it has been found possible in most countries to adopt activity methods—that is, to give more liberty—in teaching young children, while they are not even thought of in grammar schools.

WHAT teachers have to recognize, and many of them do, at least *rationally*, is that school is a transitional community. But if it is so for the children it is not for the staff. The more they

regard the school as 'their life', the more difficult it is for them fully to realize its transitional nature. They try to achieve what a young teacher once called 'that monster: the perfect schoolgirl'. The rules that may be necessary, and to which they loyally try to conform, become eternal laws and they tend to blame or to ignore the changing morality of the outside world. But the children do not. They live in two worlds in this era of day schools, and have loyalties to two groups—home and school. Hence the need for good relationships with parents.

The most difficult problem for teachers, as indeed for parents, is to accept the changing nature of the growing child and to revise one's attitude in the light of this realization. And this applies not only to discipline but even to methods of teaching. Few Modern Language teachers realize, for instance, that the decline of interest in the second year of learning French is due to the continued use of the Direct method, which begins to appear to young adolescents as a childish game.

In order to be able to accept the growing child, the teacher needs first *compensations* in the form of greater freedom both in and out of school; but in addition he also needs *guidance* in order to understand himself. For this I feel sure that the introduction of interpretative group discussions during training and again after two or three years' experience could do a great deal. The groups would enable the teacher to understand himself and his own reactions better in a permissive atmosphere. It would be 'going to school', but to the kind of school suitable to his state of development. The teacher-in-training is an adult about to take responsibilities: he must be taught as such, as Professor Curle so clearly pointed out in an article in the February number of *The New Era*, entitled 'From Student to Teacher Status'. His tutor must be helped to cast off the school-teacher-to-pupil attitude too.

To recognize the reality of other people's growing up, i.e. changing, means to get a truer view of one's own personality. The increasing sense of reality necessarily followed by the casting off or modification of phantasies carried over from childhood is a *sine qua non* condition of maturity. Whatever means are used to achieve this, it must remain a primordial aim of the education of both children and educators.

THE TEACHER'S NEED FOR GUIDANCE

Marjorie L. Hourd, Author of 'The Education of the Poetic Spirit' and 'Some Emotional Aspects of Learning'

I DO not want to set up as an arbiter between inspectors and teachers, but rather to try to look at some of the things which teachers think and feel about their own needs. At the same time these can not be thought of out of relation to the people who try to satisfy them. This inter-relation of need and satisfaction, expectation and fulfilment, is something we are coming to understand much more about in modern society. We now know too much about human nature to think that impartiality can ever be completely attained in relation to another person or ourselves. Perhaps it is as difficult to be impartial in our judgment of teachers as it is of parents. Whatever is said about them is said by someone who has been taught. Add too that some of us are born teachers, which means I think that there is a big part of us that wants to tell other people what to do, as well as a big part that craves to share knowledge. We are, I think, difficult people to guide.

Be that as it may, teachers are more consciously seeking help than they ever did before, and that makes the task of co-operation easier. A teacher wrote to me the other day in answer to an enquiry I was asked to make into the frustrations and satisfactions of the teacher's job, and under the heading of inspectors—(he found his own headings), he wrote: 'Their approach to the practising teacher would appear at the present time to be ideal. This spirit of co-operation and enquiry must be fostered.' One wonders whether that could have been written fifty or even twenty years ago. It has taken us a long time to realize that authority can be maintained along with co-operation, and to admit that there is no place in education for onlookers and overseers.

Inspectors by definition are not lookers-on, but lookers into, and the Oxford dictionary explains that the word 'look' comprises two meanings: examination and contemplation. This is how teachers like to feel they are being guided, with a mind that is both analytic and synthetic. I do not think they want familiarity or over-enthusiasm, or a hail-fellow-well-met attitude. They regard inspectors as emissaries from higher powers—which they are—people who, to adapt Shakespeare's lines, have taken upon them the mystery of things as though they were God's

spies. Teachers stand in real need of someone whom they can respect and look up to, and at the same time talk with on a professional level as equals. Sometimes a head master serves this purpose—but not in quite the way in which an inspector can, if he will take the rôle of itinerant philosopher.

What an extraordinary place a classroom is. Headmasters and headmistresses come in and out, colleagues sometimes, children from other classes far too often, visitors occasionally; but most of the time, the teacher rules his kingdom alone; and within the framework of those four walls a strange life takes place, where triumph and defeat, loyalty and enmity, boredom and revelation and many contrasted feelings come and go. Different relationships are worked out, whilst the retreats from contact are just as significant. The aspects of the teacher which the children never know will be felt. The places where children keep their secrets are generally unconsciously accepted without probing. Learning gains its impulse from a complex emotional life—of which, much of the time, neither teacher nor child is aware. A classroom is a very safe place once a working understanding between a teacher and his class has been established. It may very easily become far too safe. The best classroom is the one where reticence is respected but curiosity is kept on the move. When anyone comes in to watch a lesson this pattern is bound to be disturbed. Children look at teachers in a new way when teachers are being looked at. Teachers alter their focus when children are being observed through themselves. The more one compares the classroom situation with any other circumstance in life, the more curious does it appear. We take it for granted because we have all spent years and years in classrooms.

One of the functions of inspectors is to re-imagine the classroom for the teacher who cannot easily do this for himself. He is in it as part of the picture. He needs an artist from outside: someone who will bring with him a sensitive mind, resonant, expectant—listening with the third ear to the tones and undertones of the lesson, watching the light and dark, and all the shapes and forms it takes; allowing appraisal and criticism to point and outline and crisp—

illuminating and interpreting not as in a court of law, but in a place where mysteries are shared. Then afterwards let the artist-observer describe what he has seen and felt. The teacher may not agree with all that is said; indeed it may be as much off the mark as on it. It will hardly matter at this stage. The value for the teacher lies in the fact that someone has cared about him in this way—has given him definition. I am not suggesting that this is all that is required of those who go into lessons, but I think it is a necessary preparatory stage—a stage of recognition and definition. It gives the teacher a sense of identity which is not easy to gain in a classroom, indeed which it is perilously easy to lose.

Teachers are much concerned with the sense of identity. They gain it very largely through the method they use in teaching. On this they like to put their stamp so that it shall be recognized in the results. They rejoice of course when children turn out differently and individuality is preserved, but they look nevertheless for the mark which is themselves. This distinguishing mark of the teacher is a baffling phenomenon. It is like a family resemblance—subtle, indelible.

What seems to cause the deepest resentment in teachers is the suggestion that they should adopt methods with which they are out of sympathy. The young teacher who wrote of the co-operation between inspectors and teachers wrote also about this. He said:

'It is felt that whereas the dictum "consider the individual child" is an admirable one, few training college lecturers consider the needs of the individual teacher when the question of method is discussed. Personality types can rarely be altered, not even by an intense course in Child Psychology, and most modern methods

make great demands on the personality of the teacher. This question involves the whole business of teacher training and teacher selection; most teachers feel that it is unfair to have imposed upon them methods with which they cannot identify themselves.'

I think you will agree with me that, as well as considered judgment and sincere feeling, this statement reveals a certain amount of anxiety and repudiation. The teacher is saying: human nature cannot change—leave me as I am. But from his earlier remark we see how much he values co-operation and enquiry. I believe this expresses the views of a large number of teachers and their unsettled attitude towards their own need for help.

There it is; for what teachers mean, in part at least, when they resent the imposition of methods with which they cannot identify themselves is that they are afraid of the space between what they have made their own and what they have not. We may feel that we have to bridge this gap for them by providing tips and techniques, giving timely advice, and so on. Such things are of course helpful, though perhaps not always in the way we imagine. What matters is often the helpfulness more than the particular help we give. I hope you will not misunderstand me here. I am not trying to suggest that method has no significance in itself. I think those of us responsible for guiding teachers need to be both as imaginative and as logical about method as possible—to make a wealth of suggestions, pointing particularly to those we have found useful or seen other people use to advantage, more than this, to analyse methods in terms of children's interests. But this is by no means the whole of the guiding process, especially when we are dealing with people who find experiment difficult; these are very often the people who fight shy of modern methods, though many of them are, almost secretly, strongly drawn towards them. If we are imaginative people we know intuitively that danger is the way to safety; but that by no means ensures the courage to face the empty canvas.

Obviously it is not the main function of inspectors to shield and guard teachers. Their first responsibility is to children. What then are we to do in the face of this fear of change, this stubborn resolve to identify oneself with only a part of oneself and deny children the whole richness of a personality which is needed to nourish and strengthen their own?

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I think the question has a good deal to do with the very human problem of the rights of possession. The teacher is in a sense asking: Whose children are they? Whose imagination is it? He may be feeling that if he leaves the mark of his influence upon them he has robbed them of something of their own. The same question may be asked of the person who comes into the lesson. Are you, by imposing something on me that I feel does not belong to me, doing to me what I fear I may be doing to the children? Or he may argue another way round. Some teachers are angry when they have to receive suggestions and ideas, which were already their own, as if they were not. I suffered like this as a child. I used to say to my mother, 'Don't always tell me what I am just going to do.' I think it was because this early experience was such a strong part of my sympathy, as well as of my fear, that I was able to understand what was happening the other day in a student's teaching practice. I would like to describe this to you in some detail because it shows that my own identification was both a help and a hindrance.

The student was in many ways gifted, though he had not been successful academically. He entered upon his teaching practice with a trepidation he did not try to conceal.

In the first term he had been a member of a class to which I was lecturing on original composition in the English lesson. I read a large number of children's poems and the group was, I could see, excited and interested but also sceptical and on the defensive. They had the attitude of the man who looked at the giraffe at the zoo and said: 'I don't believe there *is* such an animal'. However this student embarked on the method very early on in his practice in a Secondary Modern School. The children soon began to reward his trust in them with delightful compositions. Yet he was staggered by the results. He copied out phrases and lines from their work and dwelt upon them lovingly, almost dotingly, and slowly became very possessive of them. Then he began to see the differences between one child and another, the variety of ideas which one child would express, and his excitement grew. He was richer than he knew. His confidence developed in other ways, relationships with the staff became very friendly; discipline problems which were marked at first became negligible. However his attitude towards me underwent a

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change. He was aware that with the children and staff he could hold his ground as a creator and producer—with me I think he felt he had stolen something, but also, and as his confidence grew, that I was taking something from him.

One day I suggested he might attempt verse composition. He said he would like to, but he was afraid. When I offered to take the first lesson for him, his face darkened and he said, 'I want to do it on my own, my own way, but I would like you to be there.' The lesson was arranged and I witnessed a fine tight-rope performance. Again the results, which were average of what comes from this method, nearly bowled him over. He told me how frightened he had been and I was able to reply with truth, 'You didn't show it, you did it beautifully.' After the lesson he showed me some of the work which was very good and he added: 'I don't mind telling you now that when you read those poems to us last term no one really believed that children had written them.' He could not confess this until he was established himself in the method.

However, it was not as simple as that. The work went on and I did not see him again. Later, I had a letter, full of the same ecstatic pleasure and surprise, giving me two poems in full. After the first he wrote, 'in case you should think this an isolated example, here is another'; and at the end he remarked, 'Will they ever believe me when I tell them about this next term?' So I was put in the position of the disbeliever. In my reply I pointed out that these imaginative powers are in most children and he had the gift of believing in them, but it took a little time for him to be able to forgive me for being the one who first suggested the idea to him. Then in a further letter he pointed out how the work was progressing: 'just

as you said'—and he thanked me for the encouragement he was given to go forward with his ideas. We had become equals not only in fact but also in his recognition and acknowledgment.

There is of course a great deal in this story which we have not time to draw upon here, but one can see what a hair breadth there is for some people between success and failure, and how a method which a teacher can feel himself at one with can both stabilize his own personality and at the same time liberate creative powers in children. It is also important to notice that I was able to be a real help only when I became aware of my own identification—but he was largely responsible for showing it to me. At one point I was about to build bridges—in fact to take over the whole construction—but he showed his resentment at just the right point and the creativeness of both of us was saved. In other cases I have found that students were anxious for me to take the lesson and that was the only way to give them confidence. Sometimes I have shared lessons with them, but I was wrong in imagining that either of these methods was appropriate for this teacher. A great deal depends upon the fundamental attitude in the personality towards possessing and being possessed.

It is relevant here to mention one of the discoveries I made during a piece of research into the writing of original composition.¹ It was found with children that, when they first began to write, many of them stole their poems from anthologies or borrowed lines and phrases here and there. If these were accepted in the degree to which they were original, and not condemned in the parts that were not, that is providing one was able to make such a clear distinction, the writers soon began to use their own idioms and rhythms; though of course unconscious imitation is one of the ways in which we reflect upon our origins. But so disturbing do many teachers find the stealing stage that they fight shy of the work altogether. So we find the Promethean struggle recurring in these classroom dramas which can indeed in some people take on titanic proportions in the mind.

One of the difficulties in guiding people whom we cannot see very often is that of becoming aware of what is going on—of being able to place it in a total situation; and this means trying to

understand the teacher almost in a philosophical sense. The other day I heard of a case of an Art teacher whose work was being examined in an inspection and the Inspector felt that the teacher was not encouraging children to look at things enough and she made an excellent suggestion, though, I gathered, with an over enthusiasm. She suggested: 'send the children into the garden to bring in all the brown things they can find; and then let them pick delphiniums and forget-me-nots and look at them until they really know what brownness and blueness is.' Now it so happened that this teacher was in a stage of transition in her own development as an artist. She had at one time perhaps overstressed the assertions of the outside world, and she was now giving place as every artist must to the symbol. No doubt this was reflected in her teaching. The inspector may have been on a wave of reaction against what might have seemed to her over-emphasis on fantasy. Obviously we are placed here at the heart of a problem which has beset philosophers from Plato onwards, if not before. We find two people moving in opposite directions in their need to solve it, but little attempt was made to try and understand what was happening and to share a mystery. The teacher was not as able to express the necessary arrogance and still enlist the inspector's co-operation as my student was. However she was fortunate in having a Head who knew her work in a total picture and supported her in the teeth of a bad report. Not many teachers could easily survive the life and death struggle of the student, or the rejection given to the teacher unless someone was there to lend support and sanction; I have known many teachers saved by inspectors who valued their work even though they were pioneering alone and unsupported in a school.

The importance of sanction came out very strongly in the group research work already referred to. The aim of this work was not to make direct suggestions so much as to loosen up the imagination so that ideas could be influenced at the roots—light and air could get to them. It meant that quite different results might occur from the same experience; for example one group member wrote:

'The work gave me a sanction for accepting badly spelled untidy and illwritten work sometimes, which was useful to me because, by laying great emphasis on neatness, punctuation,

¹ The research was carried out at the Institute of Education, The University of Leeds 1951-1953.

etc., I think I may be stifling much originality. I find that my girls will write a thing out nearly half a dozen times for you once you have read the untidy work which has given pleasure to some of the class.'

However, another member made a different reflection:

'I do not do enough correcting. I did not realize before how frustrating this must be to children. I should not have been satisfied if my contribution had been met with no comment. I prefer an adverse one to none at all.'

From this it would seem that it is only when suggestions can be turned into something of one's own, and the conflict which this may entail be sustained, that conversion passes into conviction. I can of course only draw on a very few of the issues involved in the highly complex topic we have embarked upon here. We are here really dealing with the psychology of change and transition; with the fear of dispossession and loss of continuity which give rise to a need for definition and a sense of identity. A sanction to make mistakes, in fact to make a mess, can often help to sustain a person at such a time and make it possible for suggestions to be accepted in a way that will strengthen the imaginative vision. This is not the same thing as advice, which is of course often needed as well.

We hear a good deal these days of the rarity of finding teachers who base their work on a fundamental philosophy; and yet most teachers have philosophic minds. How then has this situation occurred? Is it not true that most of us go through philosophic stages. In the teens and early twenties particularly, schools of thought and ideologies of various kinds gain a hold and then gradually life itself soaks them up—maxims, platitudes and great thoughts are bargained with, bought back or discarded; a stream of philosophic enquiry accompanies the daily life of most thinking people but so little of it is ever thought through to the point of formulation. It remains 'felt in the blood and felt along the heart' but is not taken into the mind in a way which can prompt action and change custom. It is as though we were living in a philosophic age without a philosophy. One of the difficulties is that we can no longer leave philosophy to the philosophers; too much has happened and we are gaining knowledge through the social sciences which is stated in such a way that all of us are

involved in the here-and-now implications of it. It is of course psychology in particular which assails the teacher in this way. Again let us listen to the man we first quoted, who does in so many ways seem to represent the average teacher. Under the heading of psychology he writes:

'Perhaps the greatest impact upon the school scene in recent years has been made by the psychologist. It is true that teachers are not fully adjusted to the situation. It is not difficult to find the reason why. A teacher's training course, at the most occupying three years, cannot completely cover the huge field of child psychology. Moreover it is in itself a dynamic subject, requiring constant up-to-date reading and revision of subjective opinion. Teachers are apt to snap at the end-products of psychological research and to employ methods in practice of which they themselves are not convinced. Teachers working without conviction are a menace to the profession.'

Now the interesting point about this statement is that it fails to take into account the fact that modern dynamic psychology is built upon the implicit assumption that the child is father to the man, and that a teacher needs to keep up not only his reading but his living in such a way that the child and the man in himself are brought together in harmony. The problem for us in this modern age is not how to escape conflict but how to be at home within it; and as soon as we try to do that, then we discover how far there is a basis of sound principle. The war between activity and formal methods of teaching has always been waged inside our own minds. We cannot solve it by placing it outside, as a matter only for pedagogic debate. The students did not accept the validity of the children's poems, because they could not believe that they were written without preparatory lessons in prosody—could not in fact believe that the poetic spirit is part of our human heritage and, as soon as we gain a vocabulary, part of our human culture. We found in the Leeds research that we were constantly being driven to ask at what point formulation and technique became necessary for work to reach a richer content, and were as constantly driven to the grateful acceptance of Shelley's faith that they were most profitably employed as 'a careful observation of the inspired moments'. When we face an empty canvas it is our love which is on trial; which Robert Graves understood in *The*

White Goddess when he wrote: 'The single poetic theme is of Life and Death—the question of what survives of the beloved.' I think that Robert Frost too meant this when he said: 'When I am writing I think of nothing but the subject—afterwards having nothing to boast of but the form', and Keats when he wrote: 'I believe in the holiness of the heart's affections and the truth of imagination.'

I have dwelt in this paper on method in general terms: where I have particularized it has been in speaking of art and literature. That was partly to narrow a very wide subject and also because my own experience is chiefly in this field. But I hope it has become evident that these remarks apply to the question of guidance in a fundamental sense.

My plea is that we should try to understand a kind of two-way influence of knowledge upon minds, and minds upon knowledge, and recognize

the defining function which method takes within this process. A teacher is unlikely to bring a child to the point of clarity when he can say 'I've got it'—'I see it'—'I understand!' unless he has been able within his own mind to make the facts he is presenting his own. The child will then feel he is understanding both a truth about things and a truth about the imagination which presents them; for this is how he first came to recognize the world in the person of his mother both as a fact of perception and also as the fulfilment of what in his intense need and desire he imagined. A loving mother can so shape the growing child's imagination that learning will be to him both the satisfaction of curiosity and the possibility of new vision. It would seem then that the greatest service we can render a teacher is to establish his confidence in what is his own.

This paper was given at an international conference for Inspectors organized by the New Education Fellowship, Chichester, England, April 13-22, 1955.

NEWS AND NOTES

CEYLON SECTION

The Third Annual Meeting of the National Education Society of Ceylon was held in King George's Hall, University of Ceylon, Colombo, on the 29th January, and was combined with a National Conference on Education and Employment. Mr. K. S. Amlnandhy, the outgoing President, took the Chair and delivered the Presidential Address. Papers were read by President S. K. Bunker of Jaffna College; Mr. R. L. Gunasekara, Assistant Commissioner of Labour; Professor T. L. Green, Mr. J. E. Jayasuriya and Mr. K. Nesiah of the University Department of Education. The Honorary Dr. M. C. M. Kaleel, Minister for Labour, spoke at the end of the discussion that followed and thanked the N.E.S.C. for arranging the conference on such an important problem. The proceedings have been published in the *Journal* and reprinted as a separate report.

The new Council, headed by Professor T. L. Green as President, has already in hand certain studies and investigations. A sample survey of School Provision in Colombo has been planned to take place in the next academic term.

Dr. Raymond Iredell, Fulbright Professor from California, addressed the Society in March 1955 on *Some Trends in American Education*.

K. NESIAH, *Secretary*

DANISH SECTION

The greatest event of the Spring season was the fifteenth anniversary of the Association on the

15th March (not of the Section: it is twenty-nine years old!) For this meeting the famous Danish poet, Halfdan Rasmussen, wrote a very inspiring Prologue: *The Child*. Some of the pioneers of the Section, Dr. Naesgaard, Sofie Riffbjerg, rector Arvin and Gertrud Lundholm, gave a 'round table speech' and spoke in co-operation with the representatives of the Committee for 1955 (Ging Christensen, Rebekka Rasmussen, Rasmus Jakobsen, *President*, and Torben Gregersen), on the events and the work of the Section past and present. After that, some of the members gave some glimpses of the same thing in a 'revue' written by our old 'circus-director', K. B. Mønsted. At 10 p.m. 106 members were brought in taxies to another place, where the tables with red wine and cheese waited! The festive night ended in the morning!

The *Copenhagen Branch* had five other meetings: Sofie Riffbjerg spoke on *Society's Step-children*—a very impressive lecture (printed in our paper, 1955, 3). Agnete Vestereg spoke on *The Waste Material Playground* (Skrammellegepladsen, Copenhagen) as protecting children's institution. The next meeting was a discussion on the problem of thirteen-fourteen year old children travelling abroad with World's Friendships travel. (Is it too early?) Professor Mogens Fog, D.C., gave a brilliant lecture on *The Notion of Psychosomatics and its Limits*. At last we had a *Book-Parade* with all the new school-books.

The summer conference will be held from the

1st-8th July in Svendborg (Funen) about the school-buildings, the school-books and the co-operation between the different branches of welfare work. There are still 4,200 members in the Danish Section.

TORBEN GREGERSEN, *Secretary*

GERMAN SECTION

As a rule reports concern themselves with outstanding activities for these seem most worth reporting. During the winter we did not have such activities, but the groups in the different areas were active in their regular meetings, in actual class-room teaching and on parents-work. The topics can indicate only the direction of what was done.

The *Berlin* group shows the fullest programme. Monthly lectures and round-table discussions were concerned with practical educational problems. Two workshops dealing with new school buildings and material for class-room techniques had extra meetings. In *Frankfurt* the group continued the preparation of simple news sheets for parents. 50,000 copies of the first five leaflets printed in February are now in distribution at parents' meetings and are well received by parents and teachers. These sheets seem to be a good help in solving everyday problems. Their distribution makes the name of the Fellowship better known to the general public, and this can be important for further activities. The newly formed group at *Limburg/Lahn* has been dealing with Art education in the upper grades. The *Dortmund* group has been concerned with the educational ideas of Martin Buber. A new group was founded in *Loerrach/Baden* (near the Swiss border) under the leadership of Eduard Adelman.

A good deal of work has had to be done to prepare for the meetings of this summer. We are looking forward to the meeting of Section Representatives from the 25th July to the 3rd August in the Teachers' College at Weilburg/Lahn. It will be followed by the Summer Conference of the German Section from the 3rd to the 11th of August in the same place. It would be a great pleasure to us if the most of the representatives could stay for this Conference too. Our summer week will show some traces of the experience of Askov. The introductory lecture will be given by Dr. Elisabeth Rotten. The main work will be done in eight groups, five concerned with creative techniques and three dealing with basic educational problems of to-day.

The German Section would like to invite members of other sections to participate in this Conference. West Germany is becoming more

and more popular and cheap as a holiday country, and we hope members of the N.E.F. will seize this good chance of renewing fellowship with each other. The Conference fee will be 10.-DM, the accommodation fee 44.-DM (total £4 10s. 0d.). Applications should be sent to the Secretary, Frankfurt/Main, Eckenheimer Landstrasse 170, Germany. BRUNO W. KARLSSON, *Secretary*

NEW SOUTH WALES

The New South Wales Section of the N.E.F. has proved once again the great and incalculable value of holding residential schools and camps for creative activity. The ideas tried out at Chichester, Coventry, Frensham, Askov, and so on, are still valid, and new variations on the original theme of providing opportunity for group work in the arts and other interests under inspired leaders, make for refreshment of spirit at each new School.

The Adult Summer School held by the N.E.F. in January, 1955, at beautiful Armidale in the high north tablelands of N.S.W., brought to its hard-worked committee and its 130 members much joy, new ideas and skills. The Australian Commonwealth Government and the N.E.F. jointly sponsored attendance of five Colombo Fellows from Asian countries, who added a fine international spirit of great friendship. The prevailing opinion of the whole School is summed up in this reply to an evaluation questionnaire:

'All my expectations were fulfilled and more. I have never experienced such a large group of people, all wanting to be friendly with each and everyone. I feel able to look forward to the future with a much clearer mind, and believe that what I experienced would greatly benefit all mankind. I learned to appreciate the arts more. I think that the greatest satisfaction and the most lasting memories for me, were derived from my "world tour". I heard singing in Thailand, Pakistani, Arabian, Russian, German, French and a host of others. My association with the Asiatics and the New Australians was to me a source of delight, and I feel that I can be more tolerant, and even helpful to all in the future.'

The N.E.F. Youth Camp at the Teachers' College Camp, Castlereagh, a bush camp beside a deep river, was also a fine success. Sixty teenagers spent a week painting, studying drama, music, movement, and enjoying sports and informal discussion and self-promoted entertainment. A typical comment from one of the teenagers:

'This camp has been wonderful—it brought me out of myself and proved to me what I can do.'

In every respect—government, classes, entertainment, tutors, girls and boys, the camp has been to me nearly perfect. My ideal of co-education, i.e. companionship, has been realized. The ideal of self government has worked in my opinion very well. Mistakes were made, of course, but all were smoothed out eventually.'

This Section has now launched a campaign to build its own Centre for Adult Education and Constructive Recreation, on a beautiful quiet bushland site owned by the Fellowship at Wahroonga, near Sydney. A brilliant young Canadian-trained architect, Harry Seidler, has drawn up the plan for a building to house at first fifty resident adults, with main hall for large meetings of visitors, and places for group work, study, seminars, and creative arts. Professor Walter Gropius heartily approved the plan during an International Architects' Congress in Sydney. The sum of £6,000 is aimed at for the erection of the first unit, and members of the N.E.F. are beginning to respond.

Intensive work for mental health in the community is constantly going on in N.E.F. circles, under the wise and never-ceasing leadership of Donald McLean, President of the N.S.W. Section. Committees are working on Parents' Discussion Groups, parent-teacher co-operation campaigns, and campaigns for more and better In-Service Education for teachers. As part of this work, a Week-End School on *The Mental Health of the Child* was held in April at the Workers' Educational Association Hostel at Newport near Sydney. Thirty members—teachers, social workers, youth leaders, parents and the like—worked in small groups using modern techniques of group discussion, and basing their thinking on two books: Donald McLean's *Nature's Second Sun*, and the Penguin John Bowlby, *Child Care and the Growth of Love*. The outcome was a clearer plan of work for mental health among parents, teachers, administrators of education and health, and among all concerned with the care of the child.

Another important link in this chain of work for mental health is the forthcoming visit (May to July) to N.S.W. of Dr. Robert Bream, Fulbright scholar and Group Work expert from Lehigh University, U.S.A. Dr. Bream is to conduct seminars and workshop courses in group work techniques among N.E.F. members, teachers, social workers, and nurses. He will visit our Armidale Branch for similar work among 'key' people in education.

CLARICE MCNAMARA, *Overseas Secretary*

QUEENSLAND SECTION

The N.E.F. in Queensland is gradually developing and up to the early part of this year definite

progress has been made. The working group on *The Mental Health of the School Child* has blossomed. A group representative of all facets of education in Brisbane was set up and an attack was made on the problem. The mental health hazards have been surveyed and stated, ways and means of overcoming them have been explored, and case studies have been presented. The culminating point for 1954 was a Symposium at which a Psychiatrist, an Educational Research Worker, a Child Psychologist and a Kindergarten Director participated. Some very fruitful discussion hinging around the general topic was held and suggestions were made for putting some of the findings into effect. This year plans for implementing much of this preliminary work were put into effect and Queensland Section is making this their main programme for 1955—actual participation in activities designed to alleviate the mental health hazards of children in a positive and preventive sense. The project is termed *Children in School and at Home*, and it is to be the focal point of a large number of independent and group efforts by N.E.F. members.

A feature of the activities of the Queensland Section in the last few months has been its co-operation with other educational bodies and neighbouring States. For example, we have joined with the Queensland Institute of Educational Research in the visits of Professor Freeman Butts of Teachers' College, Columbia, and General Cariappa, High Commissioner for India. Twelve of our members attended the New South Wales Summer School at Armidale and thoroughly enjoyed the experience. A further link with other State Sections was made by the visit to Queensland of Mrs. Speight, Secretary of the N.S.W. Section, and that of the Federal President, Mr. W. H. Anderson. The Newsletters of other State Sections have been received, and Queensland has instituted a Newsletter of its own—copies of which are forwarded to other State Sections.

It is felt that during this year our Section has moved into positive action. Membership is increasing and becoming much more widely representative of educational bodies in the State from Kindergarten to the University. This year we hope to hold a *Winter School* in this tropical area modelled on the creative work group so characteristic of the Australian N.E.F. Summer Schools.

This year has seen the retirement of our President, Professor T. K. Ewer, a man of wide interests and culture, under whose leadership the N.E.F. in Queensland has grown and thanks to whom it augurs well for the future. Dr. David V. Connor has been elected President for 1955.

SARA PHILCOX, *Secretary*

Memories and Reflections. J.
H. Badley. (Allen & Unwin. 25/-).

This is a straightforward, simply written book, containing no startling revelations, no educational panaceas. Yet it is very important in what it contains for the student, the teacher, the educationist; and one wishes that all who read it could have had—as had the reviewer—the experience of working with ‘the Chief’ and knowing what it all meant in practice.

The earlier part is autobiographical, but in a simple descriptive sense and with much quiet humour. It is not an ‘inner history’ of a struggle towards maturity through difficult circumstances, contrasting sharply in this respect with Edwin Muir’s autobiography (read by the reviewer at about the same time). There is extraordinarily little evidence of conflict either in Mr. Badley’s own development through adolescence to adulthood or in the actual process of establishing Bedales, a school which must have been very revolutionary in relation to its time. The development of Mr. Badley’s thought seems to have been a steady process, beginning with an uncritical acceptance of the system at Rugby, where he was a scholar, and moving step by step away from it as he became more aware of the true needs of children and more influenced by radical social thought. Always the movement was from the one-sided and partial to the more whole and balanced, not from one extreme to its opposite.

He looks back to his experience of Cambridge with great thankfulness. ‘Of all that has been of greatest value in my life . . . there is little that has not its roots in those four years at Cambridge.’ His more detailed description of his life there is essentially a description of expansion—expansion of knowledge, interests, friendship, personality, in a place where he found beauty, sufficient leisure, and opportunity for self-direction. This holds a truth of great significance, one that those who direct our universities have almost forgotten. The majority of students to-day—especially those outside Oxford and Cambridge—can never have Mr. Badley’s wholesome experience. Their time-tables are filled with compulsory lectures, the syllabus claims all their thinking moments, and more than half their vacation time is claimed by teaching practice, field work, industrial or clinical experience. Leisure and time to grow are absent.

The point where he seemed to come nearest to a crisis was in his experience at Abbotsholme. With the encouragement of Edward Carpenter and Lowes Dickinson he assisted Cecil Reddie in the foundation of that school. The community life and pioneer work done

Book Reviews

there, especially the outdoor constructional work, opened his mind to quite new possibilities in the content and practice of education. On the other hand certain of the tendencies of Reddie, an authoritarian who expected uncritical subservience and loyalty, showed him just what a headmaster ought not to be. Bedales, with its emphasis on balance and creativeness in education, and the very great trust and freedom offered to those who joined its staff, can be thought of as the product of these two revelations.

Perhaps the most important thought that one can derive from a consideration of Mr. Badley’s work is that sound education comes not from a new cult, not even from the enthusiastic application of new ideas, but from qualities of integrity and objectivity in a vigorous, committed personality. He says that the school was a gradual growth; what was done in the earlier stages was ‘instinctive’, and only as time went on did a ‘coherent rationale’ emerge. Children are more important than ideas and there is very great danger in the establishment of a school with the main aim of putting ideas into practice. Ideas, even ideals (often these two words do not mean anything essentially different) must always be open to modification in the light of experience, but only a person who has integrity and faith, and a capacity to see things as they really are, can fully trust experience to guide him.

The book reinforces one’s feeling that schools are personal creations, not

the creations of movements. Yet there comes a time when the life of the school has to become independent of the presence and support of the founder and this moment provides the test as to whether the founder was an instrument of God, conveying something eternal and universal, or only an outstanding individual.

One of the most impressive parts of the book is the section dealing with the growth of self-government, and it illustrates well how clearly and objectively Mr. Badley watched his school develop, how things were allowed to take their time and root themselves firmly. At many points in the book he pleads for elasticity in education and decries rigidity, showing how necessary it is for a teacher to feel his way into the classroom situation, to find his own method and not to allow that method to become too fixed.

The chapters concerned with the many people who helped him in his work and encouraged him by their interest are full of warm appreciation, approval and tolerance, so much so that one wonders whether all this is not too uncritical. Those who have trodden the same way as the Chief will know all too well how in the establishment of a new venture some of the worst elements in human nature come to the surface as well as the best, and situations have to be coped with in which our tolerance is stretched to its limit and our own weaknesses are exposed. But a moment’s reflection will remind us how as time goes on it is the warm-hearted support received from so many that we remember and the occasional bitter conflict that we forget. All the same, let no one

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assume from a reading of this book that the triumphant emergence of Bedales was achieved without calling upon its founder's immense reserves of energy, endurance and faith.

Mr. Badley is now ninety. He retired from headmastership at the age of seventy-two, and much of the book seems to have been written at eighty. The last chapter—*A last look back*—is a profoundly moving one, especially to those who can share Mr. Badley's experience, but are still in the middle of 'letters to be answered, difficulties to be met, problems to think out, directions to give . . . discussions to conduct', and who wonder what it will be like when they can wake up morning after morning without these to present themselves either as a burden or stimulus.

Kenneth C. Barnes

Shakespeare and the Young Actor. Guy Boas. (Rockliff. 16/-).

This book is an account of the work done by Mr. Boas in producing Shakespeare at the Sloane School, Chelsea, of which he is the Headmaster. The author was one of the pioneers of school drama, and his productions have always been outstandingly good reaching, in fact, as high a level of excellence as training and wise leadership could help them to attain, and gaining recognition and unstinted praise from the dramatic critics of the national as well as the local press.

The first three chapters of the book deal with the use made of boy actors in Shakespeare's lifetime, and with the arguments for and against employing boys to day. Mr. Boas regards the use of boy actors for Shakespeare's women as ideal, because such presentations approach very nearly to the Elizabethan model. Shakespeare showed the relationship between the sexes, not by the inclusion of feminine charm, but by the exquisite nature of his poetry, which young people find easily understandable, and which they can speak with perception and sensitivity. When considering the school-boy in men's parts, Mr. Boas is not quite so convincing, for it is difficult to see how the young and inexperienced scholar can surpass, or even equal, in rôles such as Lear and Hamlet, the genius of an Olivier or a Gielgud. It is at this point that Mr. Boas emphasizes the paramount importance of the choice of a producer, for it lies with him to find and cast his few gifted boys, whose imaginative ideas he must foster and encourage, while at the same time training slowly and with patient understanding those willing but uninspired lads who will fill the minor rôles.

The main part of this book is concerned with accounts of twelve of Shakespeare's plays performed at the Sloane School from *Julius Caesar* (1931) to *Othello* (1953). It is not possible to speak of them individually, but certain points emerge which do explain to some extent the success which these productions achieved. There is the first essential—'a producer in love with Shakespeare', and it is this vital spark of scholarly enthusiasm which illumines the whole book, and shows how Mr. Boas is able to overcome all difficulties, and to attract to 'le théâtre Sloane', as one French writer called it, such great men of the dramatic and literary world as—to mention only three—Sir Barry Jackson, Mr. Sean O'Casey and Professor Dover Wilson. Mr. Boas treats each play as a musical symphony, he tells us, with its various indications of tempo and volume. This rhythm must be understood by the players before rehearsals begin, as must the personalities of the characters, and the various changes of atmosphere that should be felt in the scenes. The author insists that the verse must come first, and it is probably this fact that makes more than one critic comment on the beauty of the boys' speech, of the dialogue given 'with conviction and freshness'. Gesture too, though carefully rehearsed, must result from the emotions of the player, and must never be superimposed.

Having found his 'gifted boy' Mr. Boas usually continues to cast him for the type of character in which he was first successful; there was John Bryning, for instance, who progressed from Titinius in *Julius Caesar* to Henry V and then to Hamlet. Such a wealth of affection surrounds these boys in the accounts of the plays that one begins to know them individually, a feeling which is accentuated by the many excellent photographs with which the text is interleaved.

The last chapters of the book contain many practical hints to help the young producer, and two pages of concentrated advice which should prove very useful to both him and his players. In addition, staging, music, speech and rehearsal are all treated, and there are statistics dealing with the length of individual parts in Shakespeare's plays. This is a stimulating book, and one that stirs the imagination with its constant urge to the producer to aim at better and better results as experience grows. Mr. Boas loves experiment, as can be seen by his Council Chamber scene in the first Act of *Hamlet*, and by the fact that he did not hesitate to try *Twelfth Night* in modern dress. When, in 1951, the plays re-started with *The Merchant of Venice*, he rejected a suggestion that

local schoolgirls should be introduced to play the women's parts. It is, therefore, interesting to note that in his latest production, given only a few weeks ago, he reversed his former decision, and girls from a neighbouring grammar school combined with the boys in *Troilus and Cressida*.

Elsie Stainton

An Introduction to Mental Measurement. C. A. Richardson. (Longmans Green. 8/6).

Efficient teaching depends, to no small extent, upon the accurate assessment of results. Without some knowledge of the pupils' rate of learning, the quality and quantity of teaching matter may be pitched either too high or too low for optimum assimilation and retention. The wise teacher knows this, of course, and by frequent tests, quizzes and questions finds out the weak spots needing reinforcement, and the strong areas permitting an increase of pressure.

Such traditional assessment, although moderately useful, is unscientific and untrustworthy, one of our most cherished fallacies being that our judgments alone are sufficiently valid for the purpose, despite the wide range of evidence to the contrary. For those aware of their limitations in this direction, this book has been expressly written. It gives a rationale for mental testing, together with a useful range of applications of immediate use in the classroom. The weighting of examination marks, comparison of different age-group scores, prediction of results and class position from earlier tests, are among the many useful statistical techniques which are dealt with adequately and lucidly. Some may feel that factor-analysis requires fuller treatment or is best left alone, but no one could complain of its manner of presentation here, and the short bibliography directs the reader to the more advanced works.

Within the compass of this modest little book the author has succeeded in introducing and demonstrating elementary methods of statistics with a clarity which is quite exceptional, while the careful and unbiased reasoning of the scope and limitations of mental measurement deserves the highest praise.

Apart from its essential value as a practical manual, the educationist will find between its covers much stimulating and thought-provoking material on long-term educational policy, with special reference to 11+ selection. All in all, a very worthwhile little book and a 'must' for the staff library.

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

EMILE FOR TO-DAY¹

William Boyd, Reader Emeritus in Education, Glasgow University, Author of: 'History of Western Education'; 'The Educational Theory of Jean Jacques Rousseau'; 'From Locke to Montessori', etc.

IN 1907 I was appointed Lecturer in Education in Glasgow University, sole representative of Education, charged with the duty of lecturing on the subject to a class of students qualifying for the degree of M.A. Like most of those in University posts of the kind at that time, my own knowledge of the subject was somewhat general and not very comprehensive. I had a fair knowledge of Philosophy, ancient and modern, and had written an *Introduction to the Republic of Plato* for students; and I had taught in public schools for seven years, in the course of which I had made a study of adolescence under the guidance of Stanley Hall's big volumes for the better understanding of my pupils. What was I going to talk about to my students? I set about looking for an answer in the approved manner of the University man. I read anything and everything I could find about education, and gathered a sheaf of notes. Then one blessed day I came on Rousseau's *Emile*.

I had already some acquaintance with the doctrine of the General Will, and knew that Rousseau had written about education, but I had never seen the *Emile*. It was a great discovery. Here was something provokingly fresh and interesting. I read and re-read, half critical but wholly admiring. Later when I learned how men like Kant and Pestalozzi had been arrested by it and found in it a revelation, I understood their excitement. Without quite realizing it, I underwent a conversion experience, like those I had been reading about in Stanley Hall. I had not only found something which I wanted to tell my students that was well worth hearing, but I had got on the road to a new way of thinking about education.

One day in the 'twenties when Mrs. Ensor was expounding the New Education in Glasgow during one of her missionary journeys, she asked me in the course of conversation what had made me a new educator. 'Reading Rousseau', I replied, and

it was literally true. Rousseau had roused me from my 'dogmatic slumbers', and I came to the exposition of education with a definite purpose. What else I discussed in that first year of my lectureship I have long since forgotten, but I still remember the exploration of the *Emile*, when I was learning as much as the class. I had a gospel to preach and I preached it.

While I was still teaching in school, I had started to write a book about adolescence. I scrapped it and devoted all my energies for the next two or three years to the study of Rousseau, and once again the study had its effects on myself. I began by reading all the more important books written about Rousseau, alongside Rousseau's own works. Gradually I grew impatient with my authors as I came to my own views. I agreed with them. I disagreed with them. Then from Rousseau himself came the conviction that the reading of books about books was a poor business unless one made the central concern a first-hand knowledge of the thinker or the subject. From that time on, I set myself to read with critical appreciation everything that Rousseau had written. I may have been mistaken, but I came to have the feeling that Rousseau himself was thinking through me. (There can be a similar identification, I think, in the religious experience.) Anyway, I did come to a personal understanding of Rousseau, and ever since I have made it my endeavour to base my knowledge of educators on what they themselves said, and not on what others have said about them. A good disciple of Jean Jacques must base his thinking on direct experience, not on reports.

At the time I began lecturing on Education, there was very little discussion in any of the classes of Glasgow University. As it happened, I had had some experience of lecturing to adults

¹ The story behind the version of Rousseau's *Emile*, which is being published by the New Education Book Club in the autumn, under the title of *Emile for To-day*, goes back some fifty years. I have been invited to tell it briefly here.

and had learned that discussion of what had been said transformed the whole atmosphere of the lecture room. I decided that the method which had worked well with an artisan audience ought to work even better with students, and I introduced an 'Any Questions' day every week to good purpose. The students proved less responsive and less argumentative than the adults. To broaden out the subjects of questioning and discussion, I made the *Emile* prescribed reading for the special day. They might not find a great deal to question in my orations, I said. They would find it harder to agree with Rousseau.

To guide them in their reading, I gave them week by week an analytical outline of Rousseau's argument, and in the process I made an important discovery. The *Emile* as it stands reads like good discursive talk. Analysis revealed an unsuspected orderliness—and another Rousseau with a clear logical mind. The explanation I believe is that Rousseau set out to write an educational treatise on the same lines as the *Social Contract*: hence the logical order. But having read the *New Heloise* to one of his patronesses to her delight he proceeded to write the *Emile* as a sequel, and found it necessary to turn his ideas into story form: hence the personal element and the illustrations with the boy Emile as central figure. It is important to keep this in mind when reading *Emile for To-day*.

After a few years I dropped Rousseau and the *Emile* from my programme in order to get on to other interesting things. In 1930-31 I went to America as Visiting Professor of Education in Teachers College, Columbia University, and in Ohio State University. Thinking it possible that I might be asked to lecture on Rousseau, I took over my French texts and some notes. Actually, though I found more interest in Rousseau among American acquaintances than I had found in Scotland, I never had occasion to lecture on him. But I found an unexpected use for the texts. There came times in the course of the winter when I wanted to relax. It occurred to me that it might serve as an intellectual Patience if I were to carry out an old intention and make an abridged translation of the *Emile*, to bring out the essential ideas and, in so doing, provide a fresh interpretation. This I did, and having done it, put the translation aside and forgot it.

Then a year or two ago—after an interval of twenty years—when I was studying the history

of the New Education, I realized anew the formative influence of Rousseau in modern education. I took out the manuscript and read it, as I might have read somebody else's work. It seemed to me on this reading that there was something here that might bring the *Emile* to life for our times and give the reader to-day the same stimulus to thought and action as it had given me and my students. The question arose whether there was not needed a commentary as well. Yes, there was some need, since the book was written in a world very different from ours; but, on the principle that the master work must be allowed to make its own impression, the added commentary has been kept to a minimum and given the form of exposition rather than criticism. To remove a common misunderstanding of Rousseau as a one-sided thinker, the account of natural education in *Emile* has been complemented by an account of national education from his other writings. Otherwise the reader is left to form his own judgments. That I am sure is what Rousseau would have wished.

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A HEADMASTER CHANGES SCHOOL

P. W. Smith

THERE is in existence an old school log book compiled by a succession of headmasters, each of whom, in describing the educational development of the school during his tenure of office, has used much the same formula. 'When I came to this school', it reads, 'the boys were ill-mannered, lazy and slovenly in appearance. The discipline was bad and the standard of work low.' In due course another entry appeared. 'The boys' manners are much improved, they are tidier in appearance and have made much progress in their work.' After a further interval the reader is told, 'The school is now in good order. The discipline is very satisfactory and the work is on a sound footing.'

In course of time, the writer of these entries reached a ripe old age and having been thanked by his fellow citizens, who expressed the view that, having lost his services, the school could never be the same again, he disappeared from the educational scene. Thereupon a new headmaster arose and made his first entry in the log book. 'When I came to this school,' it reads, 'the boys were ill-mannered, lazy and slovenly in appearance . . .' Under his direction the school made the same rapid progress that it had made under his predecessor, but the man who followed him found that the boys were ill-mannered, lazy and slovenly in appearance.

The memory of such a book—and it cannot be unique—is a salutary warning to those who, on taking control of a well-established school, make an attempt to form an assessment of the work of their predecessors and subsequently of the value of the changes which they themselves have wrought. The task of describing the experiences of the first years of transition is one that can be approached only with the same caution and trepidation as are felt in the approach to the school itself.

A change of headship creates a very delicate situation. An outgoing head cannot always see why the new man should seek to institute any major changes. The school has, according to those inside it and some of those outside it, won a good reputation and established its prestige. Any change, other than minor alterations in organiza-

tion, can only, therefore, be for the worse. Furthermore, it is very likely that the school has gathered to itself a body of men and women whose educational convictions are such as to enable them to accept readily the school policy created by the old head and the more influential members of the staff and to base their practice upon it. The impact upon these men and women, as well as upon the children in their care, of a new and different set of convictions and a new and different policy must inevitably have a disturbing effect upon the life of the school. It must be some time before staff, pupils and head reach a full understanding, and until they do there will be, in all probability, a period of uncertainty, discomfort and disappointment and even a recession in school standards.

Yet changes there must be. Even the least autocratic head will seek, with the co-operation of the staff, to put into practice a policy which is the expression of his own educational convictions. These convictions will be based upon the ideas which he has gained from the experiences of educational practice in a variety of schools, from contact with many teachers and children and from contact with current educational thought. They will, of course, like all convictions, be coloured by his own personality. A great many of the members of the staff will have seen the things that he has seen and know the things that he knows, but may well view them from different angles and place different interpretations upon them. It may safely be assumed that, apart from one or two misfits, all will be at one in their desire to promote the welfare of the children, though they may go about the task in a great variety of ways, some of them very strange. The task of the head is to resolve the different points of view, and out of the tangled skein of varied lines of thought to weave a rope that has unity of direction and the strength of ordered structure. The strands, which may twist in and out, cross and recross, must form an assembly which, in spite of its strength and strong directional emphasis, leaves room for personal expression within the scope of the work and responsibilities allocated to each member of the staff.

The appreciation of a common purpose can be nurtured in the minds of teachers and children only in an atmosphere of good human relationships. Compliance can be enforced by a determined and ruthless authoritarianism, but co-operation depends upon mutual trust and good will. The main aim, therefore, in the difficult transitional period must be the cultivation of good relationships between head and staff, between teacher and teacher, between teacher and child and between child and child. This may be a task easy to perform, but where the human spirit has become embittered, it is a labour bringing disappointment, setbacks and difficulties which at times make success appear remote or even unattainable.

There used to be schools, and perhaps there still are schools, in which the staff and the pupils wage perpetual warfare. In such schools, boys perfect guerilla tactics and girls develop the techniques of a war of nerves. Neither teachers nor pupils feel any surprise that this should be. The staff expect resistance and the children resist as a matter of course. The staff have built up a system of sanctions and have the determination to win, but if any teacher cannot win he receives no quarter from the enemy. He must either learn to bear mental torture or evacuate. Those who stay must stay on top. It may be wondered how teachers endure such harsh relationships year in and year out, but it appears that the exultation and sense of power felt by the victors in these hostilities are often strong enough to stifle any regret that the conflict should exist. And so it goes on.

Such a state of affairs precludes any real educational development. The clash of human attributes in an internecine war results in a tragic wastage of human effort. Courage, endurance, determination and other very fine qualities are used for destructive purposes instead of being directed towards some worth-while and satisfying goal. A teacher with a personality strong enough to dominate the battlefield may impose peace and establish conditions rather like those of an armed truce. In these conditions he may give efficient instruction and may be able to impart to his pupils much important knowledge and some very well-drilled techniques. But the imagination, enterprise and sense of adventure which invest doing and learning with the qualities of education are lacking. They are finding an outlet of another kind in that field of human endeavour known among boys as 'mucking about'.

A new head taking up an appointment in a school where such conditions prevail will find it extremely difficult to approach his pupils and to get on friendly terms with them. At the first sign of his advance the children will withdraw to carefully-prepared positions from which they will view him with wariness, suspicion and hostility, as if through narrow slits in an iron curtain. All that he can do is to watch carefully for those moments of unselfconsciousness when defence is relaxed. He must then make a swift, if fleeting contact. All things have a beginning.

One headmaster found himself face to face with a problem of this kind when, a few years ago, he took up an appointment in a secondary modern school. In one or two places in the new school there was an enlightened attitude and some sound education, but in general an atmosphere of antagonism was prevalent. The school was punishment-conscious. It was assumed that children would transgress if they could, so a code of preventive rules had been drawn up and punishment was inflicted for breaches of these. There were many breaches. At one of the earliest staff meetings the head was asked to explain his 'scale of punishment'—a question that completely nonplussed him. It subsequently appeared that what was required was a graded list of misdemeanours and crimes with a prescribed punishment for each. The head, it seemed, was to be an automatic caning mechanism, which was to be set in operation by every transgression. He has consistently declined to serve in that capacity!

A great number of the preventive rules were concerned with the movement of children and the maintenance of quiet. The movement of children was a process that was viewed with the greatest possible pessimism. Only a very limited amount of movement could be allowed at a time and that carefully prescribed and rigidly directed. Fetching the children into school had to be done in a number of operations. First a bell was rung. The purpose of this was to intimate that a whistle would soon be blown, so nobody took any notice of it. In due course the whistle was blown. The children thereupon assembled in lines in the playground and a minute or so was devoted to making them quiet. They then walked up the stairs, past some prefects who attempted to restore quiet, by this time lost. They then entered the hall where, under the supervision of a senior master, they were kept quiet. By the time the

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daily service had begun, the quiet so obtained had become a manifestation of reverence and the act of worship was performed in the proper spirit. After the assembly the children were exhorted to be quiet on their way out of the hall; in the corridor they were told that they were not quiet enough; in their form rooms they were ordered to be quiet. But even then some were guilty of talking. One would have supposed that only a dour and taciturn staff could devote such a persistent effort to the suppression of talking and feel such abhorrence at such a debased use of the human larynx, but anybody going near the staff room would find that enough phons and decibels were being knocked up there to dispose completely of the children as conversational rivals. The only alternative explanation is that children's talking is Wrong.

It proved very difficult to convince some of the staff that punishment, especially used as it was there, dealt merely with the symptoms and not with the disease. It was even more difficult to make a teacher see that the problems which he sought to solve by punishment were often of his own making, and that the given punishment set the seal on the relationship which led to its application. It was not understood that children whose educational attitude is defective and unco-operative need very careful treatment and patient, persistent propaganda before they will be able to live harmoniously with their fellows and take any pleasure in the activities of the school. Children who hate school cannot be coerced into liking it. Children who, after enduring the misery of constant failure, have fallen into a despairing defeatism or a desperate truculence cannot with profit be held down continuously to those tasks which tax them heavily and offer little hope or pride of achievement. Yet one punishment, used in this school for children who failed, socially or educationally, in a subject which they found difficult or uncongenial, was to deprive them of participation in those school activities in which they found success, happiness and good relationship with the teacher.

It seemed obvious to the new head that the place to begin, when dealing with those for whom school is a place of boredom and irritation and whose hopes are fixed on the day of deliverance, is in the field where interest exists and where success, however limited, lies within reach. This

interest can be developed, some skills acquired and some justifiable pride built up. Working from this limited field, the teacher who is skilled and understanding can so plan the children's activities that more subjects gradually acquire relevance and are seen to be worthy of mastery. But the warriors on the staff regarded this as appeasement. It was bad for the character. Not only that, but the ninety and nine just persons that needed no such treatment might be led to think that a life of crime leads to a state of bliss.

In his early days at the school, the head once discovered a boy in trouble. It was obviously all the same to the boy whether he was in trouble or not. According to current popular belief, though this was not checked against the records, he had had the cane nineteen times and needed only one more application to complete the score and beat the school record. He would admit to having no interest in school, other than mucking about, but it was known that he was concealing a liking for mathematics, very skilfully taught in this school by an enlightened teacher. The only interest he would reveal was in newspaper selling, possibly because he knew that he was forbidden by law to do it. In an unguarded moment he let slip that he liked watching the fudge box used for the insertion of stop press news. Asked whether he thought that he would like to set some type himself, he responded with an enthusiastic affirmative. He did his type-setting, learnt something about spelling and punctuation, was taught by experience that it pays to be careful first rather than to correct afterwards, and inadvertently revealed much of himself to the headmaster in circumstances that were new to the boy. But at the next staff meeting the head was asked why he always bestowed his favours on the least deserving citizens. It was clear that the questioner saw only two kinds of educational treatment—reward and punishment. He had not seen that every child has his needs, but that those needs vary from child to child and from time to time. A child who is standing firmly on dry land does not need to be rescued from drowning. Yet had that man come across an instance of physical illness instead of educational malady, he would, without hesitation, have stretched out a friendly and helping hand to the victim and given full expression to the genuine kindness of his nature.

So often the teacher in the classroom is not

the same man as the teacher in the staff room or in his family circle. A small boy was once overcome by amazement at hearing his headmaster's daughter refer to her father as a darling. The boys, who knew him as a man of implacable wrath, a browbeater and a savage caner, a terrifying and merciless persecutor, were in the habit of referring to him, as a whole and in detail, by a series of names which, in spite of its variety and extent, did not include the word 'darling'. Yet presumably that man, on leaving home in the morning, patted his daughter affectionately on the head and gave his wife a parting kiss. There was not a boy in the school who would not have preferred being kissed by an alligator.

Fundamentally teachers are as good natured and sympathetic as any other men and women, but bad conditions in the classroom do not allow them to be themselves. Neither do such conditions allow the children to be themselves. People are not themselves when there is tension or emotional stress. The head, on coming into a school where such conditions exist, must, by all the means within his power, lower the temperature, ease the tension and relieve the stress. Only when that is done can staff and children enter into community.

One of the things that bring out the natural kindness of the staff is the sense of being needed. One teacher, ordinarily prone to harry difficult girls into a state of desperation, was appealed to to help a very neurotic child. The child was brought to her in a frightened and defenceless state, the subject taught by that teacher being the only one the girl felt that she could face. She was kept busy in the room, by degrees found courage to venture outside it, and eventually was able to take her place in the life of the school. In the most difficult days, when her fears and neurotic fancies would not let her go through the front gate of the house, the teacher called for her with her car, engaged the child in conversation so that she passed the dreaded gate without noticing it, and conveyed her to school. The teacher was a different person when she felt that she was needed. Her sympathy and affection found expression in the work of reclaiming that child. Her failure was that she could not see that the difficult girls with whom she waged war had their needs, though they were concealed behind well camouflaged defences.

The detection of needs is part of the duty of the

staff. Catering for them is another. The head has to listen to the voices of the young and catch stray remarks made by one child to another. He has to create conditions in which the children feel that they can talk freely among themselves or to the staff of their interests and aspirations. This cannot be done if the whole weight of the school authority is directed towards the suppression of talking.

One small girl was heard to say to another: 'I don't think that we get enough music here, do you?' Immediate steps were taken to establish a recorder playing group, of which the two complainants were founder-members. The shape of that piece of musical activity was forged while the need was felt, and the persistence of the players led them to reach a reasonable standard of competence. They can read with some facility and play in several parts with perhaps even more pleasure than is felt by their hearers. When the time came to seek the assistance of the music master or of another pianist on the staff, the children were sent with their instruments and music to ask for their accompaniments to be played. This was gladly done for them and thereafter little groups of singers and players gathered in the music teacher's room to sing and play. The children needed the master and he was well pleased to be in demand.

At a much later stage, when the voice of youth was more often heard in the land, some senior girls presented the head with a typewritten sheet of proposals for the organization of an over-fifteen group and when he met them to discuss these, put some very searching questions to him on ways and means. This gave him great satisfaction as it showed that the young were beginning to take a proprietary interest in the school and that proposition had superseded opposition.

Careful listening will lead to the discovery of many interests which are of value. Pockets of interest may be set up. Those pursuing these interests may be encouraged to seek the advice of the staff and solicit their help, which will always be freely given.

The children must feel that they have a stake in the school, that the school is their school, that there is something to seek in it and something to find. They must feel that it is a place in which they can be themselves, without being laid open to censure or discouragement. Those who are drawn together into a group by a bond of

common interest feel a sense of fellowship which takes them one step towards the wider fellowship of the school as a whole. Once the children feel a sense of proprietorship and begin to regard school as more than a place where they go to have lessons, they will be ready to tend it, to improve its appearance and generally to take a pride in it.

The new head, believing that stimulating surroundings are of great educational value, set to work to encourage the improvement of the appearance of the place. The playground litter had to be tackled. As fewer of his fellow countrymen are not litter-blind than are colour-blind, the problem was difficult to solve, but after a few months, if he stood and stared at litter, with his face adjusted to express loathing, disgust and despondence, some children would, after a few moments of perplexity, reach a state of awareness and rush to pick it up.

Inside the building it is now accepted that, other than for persons of extremely well developed artistic sensibility, the aesthetic possibilities of one plimsoll and an empty milk bottle as window-sill decoration are soon exhausted. The head soon received support from the art teacher, who procured old frames, painted them and filled them with reproductions which were requisitioned specially, or with children's work. These pictures were placed in the corridors, in the classrooms and in the hall. He is preparing a scheme for wall decoration in the corridors, for which the materials have already been assembled. Work will begin in the near future.

A committee of boys and girls, chosen by their fellow pupils, has recently undertaken the decoration of the hall and has carried out a scheme using heraldic devices. Flower arrangements are being dealt with by another group of children with the encouragement of the homecraft mistress. As more activities come into being and more movement takes place, the amount of noise nearly drowns that coming from the staffroom. There is much more talking. It may never be possible to write in the log book, 'The school is now in good order. The discipline is very satisfactory and the work is on a sound footing.'

The next issue of THE NEW ERA will be Volume 36, No. 8, September-October, 1955, appearing on October 1st. As usual we do not publish in August or September.—Ed.

A HEADMASTER REVIEWS THE DALTON PLAN

Albert Corlett

WHEN the first account of the Dalton Plan reached Britain¹ it was obvious from the interest aroused that teachers were conscious of the deadening effect of the prevailing mass approach to school education and were ready to welcome a method which ensured real Individual Work.

Many teachers of this generation have no intimate acquaintance with the Dalton Plan, so a brief account of the Plan will be helpful, wherein its characteristic terms and 'mechanics' will have their setting.

The Dalton Plan is a method of school procedure which fosters real Individual work, carried out at the pupils' own will and choice during a period of time known as Free Study. It is based on two principles:

- (1) Freedom with responsibility;
- (2) The interaction of groups and individuals.

In Miss Parkhurst's school in New York there was no time-table. There were group lessons for guidance and explanation at varied times according to need.

Every pupil has a year's work called a Contract, so named because the boy or girl signed an agreement to carry out the 'job'. This Contract was divided into ten monthly Assignments, and these again into four weekly 'Periods'. Class-rooms became subject rooms where usually one subject or more, according to numbers in the school and its size, could be studied and where all relevant books and material were to be found.

Grammar and High Schools, with specialists and highly intelligent children who read and comprehend easily, can follow the complete Plan and have done so. Modern Schools would have to adopt a modified form with graded Assignments; but nothing of value would be lost.

Why did the introduction of the Plan into this country not result in more widespread application? Many years' successful working in Senior School and Modern School have proved to me both its practicability and the validity of its underlying principles. In more than fifty years of wide teaching experience, it is the only method I have known where happiness prevails in the

school through the interaction of positive learning and character development. And yet, comparatively few schools adopted the Plan even in modified form, although its term 'assignment' is now an accepted feature of educational work. It can be said, too, that Miss Parkhurst's ideas have considerably enriched educational thought.

The Plan arrived in this country at an awkward moment. Reorganization was 'in the air' and after the Report of the Consultative Committee in 1926—the Hadow Report—slowly became an accomplished fact in most areas. Head Teachers of the newly-formed Senior Schools were faced with many problems which Miss Parkhurst's book, *Education and the Dalton Plan*, might have helped them to solve. But unfortunately it gave many readers the impression that rather complicated operations for boys and girls of eleven years of age are requisite for success: the various graphs and the assessment of units of work did not appeal to the 'Heads' of the new schools. Apart from a simple record of work accomplished, we omitted these devices and simplified others, losing thereby none of the virtues of the Plan.

Freedom of movement and speech in school in those days was another reason for non-acceptance of the Plan by hardened traditionalists. The idea that such liberty could be given in school to boys and girls was often treated with derision. Even now it is not realized that the only freedom given to pupils under the Plan is the freedom to work, which they do willingly and gladly.

The greatest hindrance, however, to the spread of the Plan lay in the fact that it did not seem to meet the requirements of the new emphasis on practical work advised by the Board of Education—as it then was—for the children of these schools. No relevant guidance affecting school organization for such work was offered under the Plan, and schools might very well have thought that their situation was desperate enough without the complication of a new method.

Our own school situation was as difficult as could be imagined. We were overcrowded and understaffed, seven teachers and the Headmaster for 270 boys! At the beginning of one school year, ninety boys entered of whom twenty-four could not read an Infants' Primer. We devised

¹ Letter to the Editor, *Times Educational Supplement*, May 6th, 1920, On Education—An American Experiment by Miss Belle Rennie. —Ed.

means, however, to give some facility in Reading to these boys and by the end of eighteen months all but eight of them—two of these defectives—were following the Plan with simple assignments.

The freedom of the Dalton Plan and its Assignments were strange neither to my own thought nor my practice. Years before it came to England we had been working with a variety of programmes in General Science, involving movement and speech in the laboratory. It was Miss Helen Parkhurst, however, who taught me how a whole school could be so engaged. When we met difficulty in organizing the practical work in our application of the Plan, the knowledge of the Plan's value compelled inventiveness and brought a quick and valuable solution of the problem.

We had a time-table for parts of each session. Seventy minutes of Free Study were followed or preceded by two class lessons, morning and afternoon. These class lessons offer valuable help to the assignments carried out during Free Study and the pupil easily realizes the profit of close attention.

During Free Study the pupil can choose which subject room he will enter and how long he will remain there. He is expected to do a monthly assignment in four weeks and should not start the next assignment in any subject until the previous month's assignment in all subjects has been completed, although circumstances may compel some latitude. Every pupil has a Record Card, initialled by the subject specialist or teacher when each monthly assignment is satisfactorily finished. The date of completion is also entered by teacher and 'Head' in their Record Books, from which a pupil's working progress can be seen at a glance. If the pupil can complete his assignment in less than the expected time, he is free to start the next month's work. No marks are given for any work done: the boy is competing only against his own 'bogey', an effective spur.

Arrangements for such subjects as English, Literature, History and Mathematics, where no special apparatus is needed, present no difficulty. For Science, Art and Woodwork, measures must be taken to prevent overcrowding of these subject rooms.

When the Dalton Plan was first introduced in our school, explanation of procedure was given at a general assembly in the school hall. The idea of Free Study caused a flutter of excitement. In order to see how the boys would distribute

themselves in the various subject rooms for Free Study, we asked them to choose the subject they would like to do and to station themselves in front of that subject room. Of course, we might have known! Most of the boys were in front of the three practical rooms. We all laughed; but it was no laughing matter. Teachers of these subjects could not be expected to waste time selecting the appropriate number of boys at each Free Study session. Disappointment at being turned away was not the frame of mind in which to approach another subject: besides, freedom of choice by the pupils was fundamental to the Plan.

A solution to the problem was urgent. Failure to devise a scheme whereby the boys themselves chose, and in limited numbers suitable to the practical rooms, would have meant the end of the Dalton Plan for us.

The school was built in 1928 to accommodate 240 children and had a Science laboratory and a Woodwork room. Our numbers rose to 270 and more when the sons of the Scottish fisherfolk visited the port each year, but in 1939 and 1940 an Art room, a Metalwork room and a large gymnasium were added. Whatever the numbers, however, the difficulty associated with entry into the practical rooms remained. Intelligence testing graded each year's intake into two forms or classes, which had suitable assignments. Before the war there were thus six classes for a three years' course, and an average of forty-five in each class. Relief came at the end of each term when more than twenty boys were eligible to leave.

The practical rooms had to take more than the recognized quota at the beginning of the year. Let us consider how provision was made for 270 children in General Science and Art: the arrangements for Woodwork, representing another facet of the problem, will be explained later.

The Laboratory was large and could easily accommodate thirty, although that is too many for efficient supervision. The day after the crowd assembled outside the practical rooms, a scheme began operating and lasted until my retirement, with never a hitch and to everybody's satisfaction. Furthermore, it was quite in keeping with the principles and spirit of the Dalton Plan.

We start with forty-five boys in each of six classes. There are ten Free Study sessions each week. To afford some relief to the Science Master—he had more outside Free Study time—

the laboratory is open during nine of these sessions. With five boys from each of six classes, thirty boys could enter during each Free Study period. Thus, 270 boys had the opportunity of entering at least once during Free Study each week. But the choice of each batch of boys had still to be made. Six sets of small brass discs were cut, one set for each class, and stamped S1, S2, S3, S4, S5. A monitor with an assistant was nominated for each class. He had a notebook containing all the names of his class; the pages of the book were ruled in narrow columns. At the top of each column was the date.

Morning and afternoon, prior to Free Study, a boy would ask for a check for the laboratory. A sloping line was entered in the book, by the monitor, opposite the boy's name. When Free Study began, the monitor was waiting outside the laboratory to collect the checks. On the return of the check an X was completed opposite the name of the entrant. The discs were kept on a key-ring and hung in my room after each session. Not one disc was lost during the whole time the Plan was in operation.

The position of monitor gave distinct prestige. All monitors were warned that favouritism or slackness would mean loss of their posts: happily, everyone of them justified our confidence.

Entry into the Art room was controlled in the same manner with different monitors and discs of course. If a boy was too late to receive a check he had to apply again—and earlier!—at another session. Any disappointment at non-entry could only be directed against himself.

For Woodwork, thirty boys could not safely or economically be accommodated at benches adapted for twenty. The maximum allowed in the room was twenty-three when the school was crowded. First-year boys were not able, alone, to take advantage of Free Study. Tuition in processes, use of tools, material, had first to be given. In consequence, a modified form of the procedure for Science and Art had to be followed. One first-year class was split and each section occupied a Free Study session in directed work for many weeks. The other first-year class had similar work in half classes, but during the time allotted for class lessons. The Woodwork room was open during all Free Study sessions, two of which were occupied by a first-year class as previously mentioned. Eight Free Study periods were thus left for about 180 boys at the beginning

of the year. For these, mobility was ensured by monitors and checks as for Science and Art.

The reader may think that the foregoing scheme is unnecessary, and an instance of organization 'run mad'. Would it not be far easier and tidier to fix numbers and pupils to enter the practical rooms at stated times? So it would; but then it would not be the Dalton Plan. Opportunity for character development would be lost. Shepherding and directing boys and girls have always been characteristic of school education and in the main are so yet. It is thought that pupils of their age cannot exercise initiative, choice and judgment—a misconception of the defeatist!

The Dalton Plan places a great deal of responsibility on the pupils for their own education and well do they respond. Initiative, integrity and self-dependence are cultivated in all operations under the Plan. The atmosphere is serene, work provides its own discipline, and the teacher, though fully occupied, is less harassed.

The foregoing practical details have been given in the hope that they may enable readers to re-assess the usefulness of the Dalton Plan to children in Secondary Modern Schools.

[A chapter from *Assignment Happiness* in preparation. Published by kind permission of the author.—ED.]

World Council for Early Childhood Education

O.M.E.P.

BRITISH NATIONAL COMMITTEE

A DAY CONFERENCE

ON

SELECTION for TEACHING

WILL BE HELD ON

SATURDAY, 1st OCTOBER, 1955

from 10-30 a.m. to 4 p.m.

AT

Manson House, 26 Portland Place, W.1

Chairman:

PROFESSOR W. A. C. STEWART, M.A., Ph.D.

(Professor of Education, University College of Staffordshire)

Further particulars from Miss M. C. Hartley, Reading
Institute of Education, 29 Eastern Avenue, Reading,
Berks.

PROBLEMS OF THE NEW TEACHER

1.—PROBLEMS ARISING FROM SCHOOL ROUTINE

F. Enns

ANYONE embarking on a new career will be confronted with problems in his work and in his relationship with fellow workers. In the case of the teacher the settling-in process may be particularly difficult. I see the main problems of the new teacher as arising from: school routine; the relationship with Head, staff and parents; difficult children; and from one's own conscience and awareness of one's own shortcoming, insufficiency of knowledge and uncertainty of conduct.

The student teacher has had, in most cases, two school practices during which he has been in charge of a class. But how real was his authority? Did he undertake all the duties a class teacher is expected to perform? He has been trained to teach children. Has he been trained to meet all the demands of school routine?

Registers, Dinner Money and Break

I can only talk of my own experience. My first problem arose from what seems a trivial matter: the calling of the register and the taking of dinner money.

My first post was in a Primary School in London. My class was a B stream of forty-six children. There were ten minutes between the time when the children arrived and their lining up for Assembly.

I asked the children to answer, 'Present, Mrs. Enns', and soon realized I had made a mistake. The children were not used to it and thought it funny. They were thinking of a present (gift) and not of *adsum*. I quickly changed to 'Here' or 'Yes', but some insisted on saying 'Present'. On the other hand some did not answer at all, while others answered for the ones who were absent. What added to the confusion was my own nervousness in thinking of all the classes in the hall already lined up and the Head waiting for mine. I began to wonder whether I needed new glasses, because I put strokes and rings into the wrong columns.

Nineteen children had dinner, paying at different rates. The office had to be told in writing how many paid ninepence or eightpence, and how many were free. Not very good at this

sort of thing at the best of times, with forty-six children around me needing my attention, not to count interruptions by mothers and latecomers, my sums often went wrong, which resulted in frequent visits by a contemptuous school secretary and loss to my own pocket.

Soon I realized I could not do both Register and Dinners before Assembly and concentrated on the dinner book, leaving the register for afterwards. I found out that some of my mistakes had occurred because children had not paid what they were supposed to pay. When I knew the children, things became easier, but it was not until the following year that I solved the problem in a way which I found very satisfactory.

This year I have been in charge of a C stream of thirty-six children between seven and eight years of age. Very soon I was able simply to look round and to ask: 'Who is not here?' The answer was quickly supplied. 'Three away out of thirty-six? How many are present?' At first few hands went up; soon there was general interest in attendance. At the end of the year the children could work out the *weekly* attendances.

As to dinner money, except for paying for my own dinner I have had nothing more to do with it. At first I trained the two brightest ones. One has been replaced after a fortnight and so it has gone on, the trained children acting as instructors to the new learners. Sums have been worked out on the blackboard. Of course the multiplication of money was at first beyond the sum experience of a C class, but very soon the children of the top group were capable of doing it on their own. The school secretary has changed her opinion about me, because the children have never made a mistake.

Milk and malt can cause a waste of time and temper, or a means for social training and the teaching of arithmetic. Yet I did not see during my first year that crates of milk of thirty bottles, in rows of five, were a practical example of the multiplication table. A good teacher will necessarily be a good organizer, but even a good organizer needs experience.

Play-time differs in most schools, so do the arrangements for getting the children back to

class. In the school in which I was working there were four staircases, two for the boys and two for the girls. One teacher was on full duty in each of the two playgrounds, others had to come down just before the whistle, to stand at the bottom of the staircase. The children had to line up in front of the staircases.

A class of forty-six children is a difficult task in any case, there are always many different things one has to remember in connection with one's work. This was my excuse for frequently forgetting the short play-time duty, though I always remembered the long one. Now I believe the underlying reason for my forgetfulness was my inner conviction that the staircase duty was unnecessary. There are occasions when strict formation and absolute silence are necessary, for instance when the fire bell has been rung. But after play it seemed to me it might be possible to let children walk back to class without fuss and bother.

One day it began to rain, so I blew the whistle and waved to the children to come in without lining up. It went all right; no one pushed or misbehaved on the stairs, but I have had no chance of repeating the experiment.

Dinner Duties

On top of the play-time duties one has also to remember the times for dinner duties. Again there was a long and a short one, every third day. The long one consisted in supervising the children in the hall (which was used for dinners) and lasted thirty-five minutes; the short one, in supervising children in class-rooms waiting to go to the hall.

The generation of teachers who taught before the War resent dinner duty more than do those of us who have never known the perfect quietness of a dinner hour, with a school and playground free of all children and noise. Most teachers dislike dinner duty, if only because it comes at a time of day when they too are tired and hungry.

In this school the rule was that children should be encouraged to eat up their food. After the first course, they had to ask the teacher's permission to get their puddings. The strict enforcement of this rule depended on each teacher's attitude towards the question of school dinners. The teacher who felt that he could not be asked to do more than prevent the children from poking each others' eyes out with knives and forks, or the one who does not like vegetables himself,

will naturally act differently from the teacher who wants a subsidized service fully used, or from the one who believes that the balanced diet provided is only beneficial if every particle is eaten.

I myself was faced with a problem. Generally I do not like compulsion without good reason, and I am quite aware that medical opinion on what children can and should eat differs. On the other hand I intensely dislike the waste of food. This goes back to my own childhood. I was brought up in a, then, poor peasant country. Respect for God's gifts is deeply ingrained in me. The story of the girl with the red shoes, who was condemned to dance until eternity because she used a loaf of bread as a stepping stone so as not to soil them, was always for me reality. Waste of food and fussy eating is, for me, much more than merely bad manners, it is a sin. Though I may very likely be wrong, I cannot help insisting that children eat up their first course before clamouring for pudding. Yet I could not help being touched by the request of a parent:

Dear Miss Ends,

I don't like bothering you but I have to as Rosemary does not want me to come up.

Up to now Rosemary has liked her school dinners and it has made a very big difference to me but she has just come home very upset because she can't eat the afters of semerlina as she sais it makes her feel sick I have tried to give it to her myself, but she has never taken to it and now this has turned her off the dinners as she sais she mustn't leave it, she is really very good about her food and really likes everything and I should hate her to have to stop dinners at school, as they have done her good and I appreciate it, so could she not be given afters of Semilina if possible, if you wish I could come up and see you and explain myself a little clearer. I do want her to keep up having her dinners, please try and see if you can do this for me . . .

I decided that Rosemary's mother's wish should be granted, but what would happen if other parents inundated me with requests to let their children forego one thing or the other? I sought the Head's advice. Rosemary did not need to eat semolina pudding.

Some weeks later, when I was sitting in the staff room enjoying a nicely-cooked semolina pudding with stewed fruit, I suddenly remembered Rosemary and dashed down in the hall. I found her in the pudding queue. 'You have permission to go home without eating it,' I reassured her. 'But I want it now,' was the answer.

Permission to 'Leave the Room'

I believe every new teacher will come across

the question of children during lesson time wanting to 'be excused'. Is it a genuine request? Or is the child bored? Does he really want the lavatory or does he just want to play around?

At first, quite a number of children asked several times a day to be excused. I obtained the advice of an experienced colleague. 'Never let a child go the first time of asking; if it really has to it will ask you another time. You will also notice yourself if he is uncomfortable.' Not satisfied I sought the opinion of the Head. 'Send all these children to sister,' he decided, 'she will give her medical opinion.'

The sister's verdict was that only one boy was a genuine case of weak bladder; all the others who clamoured to go were only badly trained.

Nevertheless the mother of one child, who incidentally became top girl, asked me to let her go to the toilet without asking. This girl, Sylvia, never made use of this permission. One day, after needlework lesson in another class with another teacher, she returned very pale and was suddenly sick all over. The next day I received this letter from her mother:

Dear Mrs. Enns,

Thank you for looking after Sylvia. Every Monday and Wednesday when Sylvia goes for needlework into Miss X's class she complains of pains in her stomach because she does not dare to ask her to go to the lavatory. This is really very unnecessary. Could you please tell the teacher that you have given Sylvia permission to go and would like it extended to her lessons as well?

I was wondering why Sylvia, who never wanted to go to the lavatory during my lessons, though she had the permission to go without asking me, felt very uncomfortable and wanted to relieve herself when having lessons with another teacher?

Then another case occurred which showed that sister's verdict was very much open to doubt. A child, Barbara, came crying to me after play-time because she had broken the elastic on her knickers. Unfortunately I had no safety pin available and fixed things up as well as I could with a piece of string. An hour later she wanted to go to the lavatory, though she had never asked before. I told her bluntly she could not go, she could not manage the string arrangement by herself, anyhow it was not long before she could go home. Had it not been for the string I would have let her go. The child wetted herself. Her irate mother came in the afternoon but apologized when I explained the reason for my refusal.

'The child was upset,' she said, 'because this morning she had seen her father faint.'

If a child wets herself it is not only very unpleasant for herself, but her friend, too, feels disgraced. I give here a passage from a girl's diary:

Yestday Gillian wet her nickers at P.T. Nancy was larfing teacher ask why she was larfing. she said Gillian has dun it. teacher siad dun what. Nancy said she has wet herself.

No one else mentioned this incident in their diaries.

I missed one week from school and found the following entry in the diary of a very 'good' little girl. She, too, had never once asked to go to the lavatory.

I am not well to day and keep on wanting to go to the toilet when the teacher comes I will tell her or him my daddy gave me a letter to say that if I need go to let me. The headmaster has just come and excused me as well. My mother has been in hospital and I have been staying at my friends house she has a girl Mary and we have been playing I spy and I have been watching television. so it had been good but I am looking forward seeing my mother again I have not seen her for a week when I go home this morning she will be home when I go home my mother will be home.

A personal experience decided my future dealings with this problem. I was staying, during a painting course, in a very old and picturesque building. I shared an attic with two women. The lavatory was across an extensive garden. Though none of us was in the habit of using a lavatory during the hours of the night, the inaccessibility distressed all of us, so I vowed I would never subject a child to such an unnecessary hardship.

In fact the problem was solved the second year. At first three boys of the C stream wanted several times a day to go to the lavatory. Some children when they were stuck with their work wanted to go too, but I did not want to discriminate. All I did was give a little talk. I reminded them that at their age they should be trained well enough to go only at certain times. Nevertheless there were some children who had a weak constitution and needed to go at shorter intervals, and of course children sometimes eat something which brings on a stomach ache. In any case I did not wish to be bothered with it; if they had to go they could go without asking me. There was only one condition, no two children must go at the same time. Except for another talk on washing hands after having been to the toilet the matter has never been mentioned again.

Rigid Time-Tables

Problems arising from the time-table were quite real for me. Children like rituals and planning, they delight in certain subjects at certain times, yet I do not believe in a too strict adherence to a time-table. Of course, Music and P.T. lessons have to be taken at the prescribed time. But if, for instance, a child brings on a Monday an interesting specimen from the seaside, I prefer to let the set lesson go overboard and turn it into a Nature or Geography lesson.

I soon learned that if I wanted to do this, I had to rely on my own resources, as only one set of text-books was available, which could be used only at the time allotted to the subject.

According to the time-table I had to take a class for Music, while another teacher took over my Geography. Though I would have preferred to teach Geography to my class I could see the necessity of the exchange, as the teacher in question could not take Music. But I was seriously disturbed by another exchange.

Twice a week for a full hour boys and girls were separated, the girls to do Needlework, the boys to do Craft, which mainly consists in making paper models. I felt very strongly about this. Not only is Art and Craft my 'strong' line in which I was very much looking forward to teaching my class, but I am convinced that these activities should be linked up with classwork, viz.: English, Arithmetic, History, Scripture, Geography and Nature Study. I believe that Art and Craft of any kind, including Needlework, should form an integral part of the general school work. To separate the sexes and to spend two hours a week in teaching girls knitting and sewing, appeared to me a sheer waste of time and opportunities. Worse still, I could not even take my own girls but was given someone else's girls.

A colleague of mine found herself in a similar position. She was an excellent potter and had chosen a school where a wheel was available. To her dismay she realized that a man colleague who

knew very little about pottery was in charge of the boys, who did pottery, while she had to teach the girls knitting. She put her case before the Head, who remarked that in this school men teachers had always taken the boys for Craft and women teachers the girls for Needlework.

I myself did not complain to the Head. I realized that as a newcomer to an established community I had no right to criticize existing conditions. To feel disappointed did no one any good, I had to make the best of it.

This can be a serious problem for a new teacher: how much can she conform without deserting her ideals and losing her integrity?

In the end, like Rosemary who hated semolina pudding but wanted it when she did not need to eat it, I got very fond of the Needlework lessons and was disappointed when I had to take over the boys for Craft.

Willingness is a virtue and in my case had its reward. The Head allowed me the next year to keep my whole class for Craft and Needlework lessons once a week. Again a problem which had solved itself.

(To be continued)

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.. ..

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NEW DRIVING FORCES BEHIND CHILD CARE

Hildegard Forres

WHEN I came to this country as a refugee shortly before the last war, my professional interest as a social worker made me seize every opportunity to visit Children's Homes. I found a great deal to admire and at the same time much that puzzled me. The most prominent features seemed to me genuine kindness and sympathy and consequently great patience with the often very difficult children; but all this was operating within a framework of traditional, conventional methods. Why this combination should have been puzzling needs an explanation.

On the Continent, very specially in Germany, the old era had ended with the catastrophe of the First World War. In the mental chaos and spiritual vacuum that followed, the new world had not yet disclosed the shape of things to come. There was a passionate search going on, affecting every aspect of Society, and the educators wondered for what kind of a future they had to prepare the young generation. Very naturally, traditional views—such as those on the unequal treatment of the sexes in education, professional and political life, as well as ideas concerning religious forms, morals, social patterns and personal conduct and behaviour—were regarded with suspicion. Beware of incrustations that will not let the new forces come to light! Education became a vast field of experiment. Many new practices failed because they followed a delusive light, while others were most fruitful and imaginative.

In this country the mental climate was very different. People felt so stable and secure at the centre of an Empire, and the fact that it was rooted in the Victorian period was a cause of stability rather than a source of uneasiness and suspicion. Last, but not least, the wealth of the Nation as a whole resulted in comparatively high material standards and favoured steadiness and level-headedness in dealing with social and educational problems. Under such circumstances there was no reason why the ever-decisive qualities of charity and devotion should not have operated unperturbed on a soil which was getting perhaps somewhat crusty, but which was not yet

seriously affected by the subterranean rumbling of a new era.

These observations helped me to clarify one-sided notions and to deepen the understanding of life's complexities which make human institutions what they are.

It was, however, obvious that the Victorian outlook in Child Care could not persist much longer, if only for one reason: psychological research had revealed facts which compelled those responsible in all civilized countries to revise their traditional ideas on the upbringing of children. The consequences of early love-deprivation, the significance of environment in infancy on character-formation, the needs arising from every human being's double nature as an individual and a member of society were already being taught by psychiatrists and psychologists to a wider public. Wayward youth were shown as victims of adverse conditions, rather than as malefactors calling for the most rigid punishment.

The English are not impetuous, but they persevere once they come to believe in the justice of certain reforms. Accordingly we expected a gradual infiltration of progressive ideas to penetrate the Homes where deprived children are brought up.

What has actually taken place could not be foreseen in the summer of 1939. In fact the change in attitude and judgment and the speed with which practical reforms have been introduced have been breathtaking. To-day the old-fashioned type of orphanage has practically disappeared in this country. A carefully planned fourteen months' full-time training course has been devised for the staff in Children's Homes. Further, the Home Office provides intensive 'refresher courses' for the house-parents who have been in this work for many years, and everything is being done to acquaint them with contemporary ideas on Child Care, especially with the main dangers to the mental development of deprived children and how to avert them. As a result, many of these Homes have changed beyond recognition.

What then accounts for the development accomplished within ten years which would normally have taken a generation or two? It is

due to the havoc wrought to the young generation in Central and South Europe and to the experiences gained in those countries that were theatres of war. The problems of child deprivation are now being dealt with all over the globe, for deprived children exist everywhere and UNICEF is now working for children in ninety-one countries and territories, but it is the fate of the young in Central and South-East Europe that challenges comparison with our own problems in this field, shedding light on the situations which account for many abnormalities in deprived children as we know them.

The extent as well as the severity of child deprivation was on an almost unimaginable scale. Its nature showed up as under a magnifying glass. It revealed multitudes of features hitherto hardly noticed and enlarged every aspect of the matter, thus making the relation between cause and effect more clearly visible.

In the immediate neighbourhood of Rome alone there were several thousand abandoned children who lived on plunder. Millions of children in Europe (the International Red Cross put it as high as 13 million) lost their natural protectors during the war. At the very time when this happened, the children were surrounded by an aggressive and brutal world. In Greece, Poland, France, Italy, Hungary, Germany, Austria and Czechoslovakia children lived in underground cellars, in bombed streets, in ghettos set on fire, and concentration camps. Those were not the only deprived children, namely children in whose lives something or other is missing which is essential to a sound, healthy, harmonious development. As a matter of fact there were no other *than* deprived children in Central and South-East Europe, for even the exceptionally lucky child whose father returned uninjured, whose mother survived the war without lasting harm and whose house had stood up to the bombing, even he shared the victims' undernourishment, their lack of adequate clothing and educational opportunities. What a young generation! What prospects for the future!

The orphaned child is the prototype of the deprived child, because the loss of the natural protectors more than any other single cause, sets in motion all the frustrations and deficiencies, material, emotional, mental and spiritual. The war orphan is in an even worse situation than the child whose father dies, say, of an accident at

work or of a disease and whose mother dies, for example, in child-birth or of a disease. The former had his parents deliberately killed by a fellow-being with weapons devised, manufactured and operated with the sole purpose of killing.

Nothing has happened in this country comparable to the food deprivation caused by the Great Famine. Those victims were not the chronically ill-nourished children we know in peace and war, inert, undersized, pale, bow-legged or knock-kneed as a result of a habitual diet of fish and chips from the near-by shop. They were children with a healthy past, now facing death through starvation and exposure. Their reactions could not be confined to greed, cheating and stealing in a small way. The more of their former vitality was left to them, the more surely they would form themselves into gangs with at least the fourteen or fifteen-year-old leader well armed, robbing with violence and ready to shoot anyone for food, or for money to buy food on the black market. Was not killing for survival only following the example set by the adults waging war?

The same applied to the deliberate destruction of anything the bombs may have overlooked. We worry over the child who keeps on tearing clothes and bed linen to shreds, but what are these compared with those frenzies of destructiveness, those ecstasies of stone throwing, of smashing sculptured angels on tombstones, figures that seemed no longer to have a right to exist in this life turned into Hell? Such was the reflection of the madness of war on the minds of the young.

Another aspect which the magnifying glass enabled us to study closely was the privation of education in countries with a high tradition in education. The children were very backward indeed in school attainments, not because lack of parental control allowed them to play truant, or because they were innately dull, or because an unreasonable mother kept her child at home to help her. The war victims were mostly of average intelligence and many above; bright children, eager to learn but deprived for years of healthy mental growth because there were no schools. For a long time after the war this deprivation continued because of lack of buildings, teachers and the most elementary materials such as paper, pencils and readers. If these children's unguided mental energies moved towards objectionable pastimes, what else could one expect?

With heroic efforts on the part of youth leaders, teachers and social workers, most of these unfortunate children seem to have been reclaimed for decent living. No word of praise is too much for what they have done for the orphaned, abandoned, starving, uneducated, crippled and uncared-for children. There was no suggestion of postponing mental care until such time as the material basis would be forthcoming through help from abroad. These helpers were stirred by the urge to create order out of chaos and restore faith in higher values in a young generation turned savage and cynical. They realized even in the midst of the Great Famine, that the deepest deprivation was of a mental and spiritual nature and that the creative power of mind and spirit could even help to build up a material basis of existence.

The living conditions were so unheard of that all social and educational work had to be unorthodox, imaginative to the utmost and experimental. Only the most sensitive response to the mentality of the war-harmed children could lead anywhere. This was no setting for a discussion as to whether foster homes or institutions were more desirable. Millions of children were in urgent need of help at a time when everybody had to fight for survival. Foster homes were available only for a negligibly small fraction. On the other hand institutions of the traditional authoritarian type, with the emphasis on modest submission, would have been grotesquely out of place, for they were based on the assumption that the adults knew everything better than the children if only by dint of their longer experience of life, and that the children should be very thankful for being taught the amount and kind of knowledge considered suitable by the adults, skills to help them to get on in future and, last but not least, religious faith.

What was in reality the position towards the end of the war as regards knowledge, skill and religious faith?

The children in the theatres of war, backward though they were in all school subjects, were pathetically forward in actual experiences, more knowledgeable than adults living under peace conditions with respect to life's perils, cruelty and terror, and of the dehumanized warrior's sexual greed. These children were also more knowledgeable than sheltered adults in the narrow ways of escape and the cunning skill to save one's

skin in constantly dangerous situations. 'Getting on in life' was not a concern for the future, it was a question of survival in the present. As to religious faith, all pre-conditions were absent for the belief in a loving Father in Heaven. Love seemed to have abandoned them.

Forced into premature independence, these children needed to have their abnormal experiences taken into account.

In this situation there sprang up spontaneously almost everywhere in the war-devastated countries children's communities. They were not spoken of as 'Children's Homes', for Children's Homes are made *for* children, whereas these shelters were built and furnished by the children themselves under the guidance of devoted youth leaders. They were not Charity, but self-aid under guidance; communities of their own which the children themselves, after having built them, would learn to govern. Everywhere the greatest emphasis lay on the active participation of the children in all matters of community life and on a maximum of freedom and responsibility in accordance with the principle of self-government.

This principle had already been put into practice before the war in some progressive boarding schools where the children of the privileged class were expected to be educated for future leadership of the nations. It was, however, new to apply this principle to the underprivileged, the no-man's children. In the changing world it became evident that it was they who needed most the early activation of their social instincts into constructive channels, because of their precarious attitude to society. More items appeared from aristocratic seclusion. Previously only the most outstandingly gifted little artist would have been given access to art or music—as a preparation for a career. As to the child of average artistic disposition, art and music used to be regarded as adornments, frills, show pieces, a pleasant luxury, an accomplishment of the well-bred young lady. Already this attitude had been modified before the war and art and music were subjects in some Primary and Secondary schools. Now it was realized that deprived children had a very special claim to art and music which the war-harmed children so clearly needed as a counter-weight to their past, in which they had come to know life from its ugliest, its most repulsive aspect. Like the vitamin-starved sailor

who needs an overdose of fresh fruit and green vegetables if he is to regain a balanced state of health, so these children needed art and music to revive their mental and spiritual capacities. Far from being adornments, they are an element of life itself, and to underrate their function endangers the harmonious development of the personality.

That this lesson has been learned here too, must be obvious even to the most superficial observer. The drab appearance of the institutional child is a thing of the past. Individual clothes, more or less chosen by the child himself or herself, has replaced the depressing sameness. Many house-mothers take a pride in showing the children how to beautify a room with flowers carefully arranged. The changed attitude to the deprived child, which shows in the greater sensitivity to his needs may not always be obvious at first sight, but the progress is enormous. The fact that the war which caused child deprivation on such a terrifying scale has become instrumental for great improvements in the upbringing of deprived children in many lands, calls to mind an ancient word of wisdom: 'The sword that deals the blow has a unique power to heal.' The demonstrations were so strong, and the resulting lessons so impressive, that the effect began to be felt even before an organized body was formed. The opportunity to learn from what has taken place in Central and South-East Europe has finally been made easy by the encouragement given by Unesco in 1948 to the founding of the International Federation of Children's Communities¹, which met for the first time in the same year in the Swiss Pestalozzi Village, Trogen.

The Second World War has made child-deprivation a social problem of international concern. It may become a menace to peace, because the minds of deprived children tend to be whirlpools of resentment and hostility. Those who bring up deprived children successfully are constantly draining this dangerous pool and reclaiming the ground for a life worth living in an attitude of friendliness. Their efforts are a factor in transforming our materially over-screwed and power-ridden world into a place wherein the spirit of brotherhood can dwell.

¹ President: Mr. René De Cooman, Cité de l'Enfance, Marcinelle, Belgium; Secretary: M. F. Cortez, 'La Meyotte', Montlignon, S. et O., France; Secretary of the Provisional British Committee: Tony Weaver, 18 Campden Road, London, W.8.—Ed.

ASSOCIATION OF CHILD CARE

OFFICERS: ANNUAL CONFERENCE, 1955

THE Association of Child Care Officers held their fifth Annual Conference at The Hayes, Swanwick, Derbyshire, from the 20th-22nd May. Child Care Officers from seventy-three Local Authorities and six Voluntary Societies attended with representatives from the Home Office, the Scottish Home Department and kindred professional organizations.

The theme of the conference was *The Next Five Years*, and from addresses and discussions it became apparent that all progress in the care of children depends upon the personal qualities of the individual officer.

The first session was addressed by Mr. Kenneth Brill, Children's Officer for Devonshire, on 'The Field Worker in Relation to Administration'. Mr. Brill's theme was that a balance must be achieved between the caseworker who has to satisfy the needs of the child, and the administrator who has to satisfy the needs of society. There is a tendency for the two sides to be out of harmony but as it is the social worker who has the training and experience of human motivation, the onus is upon her to improve the position. Where there is friction it is often due not to the limitations of social administration itself but to the limitations of the administrators. At the same time, no social worker can disregard the principles of justice and government, and every social worker should be an efficient administrator in her own sphere.

'Don't be overawed by seniority,' said Mr. Brill. 'Seniority is only valuable if the right thing has been done all the time.'

After discussing various administrative details to which Children's Departments must pay the closest attention, Mr. Brill went on to say that in his opinion one of the central problems of child care is that of the attitude of the social worker herself. The attitude of doing good for the child—'the rescue motive'—is now out-dated and must be avoided at all costs.

Preventive Work

In the second session a Brains Trust dealt with questions on the prevention of the break up of families. The Brains Trust comprised Mr. D. Jones, of the Family Service Units; Miss J. V. Hyde of the N.S.P.C.C.; Miss M. Taylor of Nottinghamshire Children's Department; Mr. A. Collis of Glamorgan Children's Department, and Miss L. M. Roundell of Dr. Barnardo's.

Presidential Address

The Hon. Mrs. Geoffrey Edwards, J.P., was

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inaugurated as President of the Association and in the course of her Address pointed out that many children are deprived of normal family life through marital conflict between their parents. She asked whether this might partly be due to the absence of proper preparation for marriage and the inadequate sex education given in schools. She felt that the facts of procreation were taught with too much emphasis on the mechanics of the process and not enough on its emotional content. The consequence would be that many adolescent girls could not possibly control the situation when, under erotic stimulus they reached the emotional flashpoint. She felt that among modern young people there was only a vague connection between sex and 'a sort of romance'. She felt that preparation for marriage must be based on the frank dicta of the prayer book and she felt sure that children could grasp that realistic approach to marriage. Everything should be done to strengthen the grasp of reason upon instinct and in this she felt that child care officers had a highly responsible task.

Methods of Care

The closing Address was given by Miss Clare Britton, Tutor in Charge of the London Child Care Course. She could foresee no new development in methods of caring for children but rather that, over the next five years, the position must be consolidated and the best type of care given now must be extended to a greater number of children. The primary need of the service would be the development of personal qualities among social workers and an improved assessment of the needs of children. What matters is who cares for the children, *not* by what method are they cared for. 'We have,' she said, 'deliberately to aim to be more conscious of the situation and to assess and evaluate more accurately. Child Care Officers must build up a literature for those who will follow them, and the answers to their problems

must be sought painfully in the job itself.' She felt that social workers must become articulate and pool their knowledge.

As a first and tentative contribution towards the study of family dynamics Miss Britton suggested that there are five types of homes from which children may come into care:

1. The normal home where the child is ill and has a psychological problem which does not lie in the environment.
2. The normal home broken through external factors such as illness but where there is little or no emotional disturbance.
3. The potentially normal home which is failing at certain points though it may give the child some things which are tantalizingly good.
4. The home that has failed to provide satisfactory relationships for the child.
5. The actively bad home.

In dealing with the children who come from these homes varied personal care must be offered. As a first step towards assessing the needs of the children Miss Britton suggested that there were three groups of children with problems:

- (a) Those who react to immediate circumstances in an appropriate way. These children may be suspicious at first but ultimately will probably accept help.
- (b) Those who show little reaction to an immediate situation because their problem lies deeper, and these we know may well present difficult behaviour later on.
- (c) Those who are so hopeless that they are beginning to organize their lives on an anti-social basis.

In conclusion Miss Britton said that we can already see one result of our work in the past seven years in the decline of juvenile delinquency. In the long run our work will reduce the population in prisons and mental hospitals. The future lies in ourselves and in our increasing skill in human relationships and understanding.

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NEWS AND NOTES

DUTCH SECTION

In the February News and Notes I mentioned three main working objects of the Executive Committee and Staff of our section:

(1) Preparations for the International Conference in 1956 take up a large deal of our time and energy. We think we are going on steadily and in a satisfactory way.

(2) In May the Section published both a member-list and the first copy of a separate section-bulletin. The member-list will make it easier to start regional group work (e.g. with discussions based on Mental Health films) after the summer holidays and will enable members to seek personal contact.

The Staff made various attempts to prepare a new propaganda-folder because we felt highly unsatisfied that the former definitions of New Education do not in fact stimulate any more. They have become commonplaces used everywhere and by everybody. We decided to put off the preparation of a new folder until after the Weilburg Conference of Section Representatives and in the meantime we will use some mimeographed factual information.

(3) In January a Committee was inaugurated to prepare a Centre for educational studies in secondary modern and secondary grammar schools in Holland. In order to give N.E.F. members in other sections some insight into the future functions of this Centre I should briefly explain that Holland has no over-all Institute for Educational Research as after the liberation the supervision of education in *all Protestant* and *Roman Catholic* primary schools was centred in a Protestant and a Roman Catholic Centre for educational studies. In a similar way the supervision of all *non-denominational-primary* schools was centred in a Centre for Educational Studies closely connected with the Association of Primary School Teachers. All three centres are being subsidized.

So far it has been impossible to make educational studies in the field of Dutch Secondary education as such research will not get governmental subsidies until it is united in a similar centre to that which covers the primary schools. The outlook on education and educational research of those who will have to co-operate in such a common Centre will, of course, be very diverse, but the need for a subsidy is a strong incentive to people of even the most extreme views to co-operate in one Centre.

The first task of the committee inaugurated in January was to take stock of the possible studies

already in hand, plan progress for future work and make general suggestions. Twice in February, the Executive Committee of the Dutch Section met the board-members of the work-groups for Mathematics, Physics, Modern Languages and General Secondary School problems. Definite plans for educational research within the work-groups were sent by all four groups, accompanied by a letter of the Executive Committee explaining the general outlook of the Section on educational research: Educational research should not be 'pillarized' but centralized in a national, supradenominational Centre and should include research from early childhood up to university.

Activities of the Secretariat, work-groups and art-centre:

The Secretary co-operated in an inquiry made by the *Hochschule für Internationale Pädagogische Forschung* (Frankfurt/Main, Germany) about the state of 'social studies' in different European countries. The inquiry was mimeographed and sent to the three educational centres, school inspectors, Principals of primary and secondary schools. The response to our request for co-operation was very rejoicing.

The Secretary arranged a visiting tour for students of the Teacher Training College at Oldenburg (Germany). Although the group was rather large (thirty-five people) a number of interesting experiments in Dutch Kindergarten, Primary and Secondary schools could be shown.

Special attention was given to the newly-built Primary schools in Utrecht. One of our members, Mr. J. v. d. Meulen, Principal of the State Teacher Training College in Haarlem, arranged a social evening for the German guests and the students of his College. N.E.F. members, living in or near Haarlem, were invited to attend this meeting. The members of the staff at this social, however, attended a second meeting of the parent-group in Arnhem where Mr. D. Q. R. Mulock-Houwer, Principal of the residential institution for maladjusted boys 'Zandbergen', Amersfoort, opened the discussion with a paper on 'case-work'. During and after the discussion everybody felt that parent-education is badly needed. However, owing to sectarian rivalries in our country, the situation is confused, and because of the lack of money and manpower for progressive experiments we could not find an acceptable basis yet to start the kind of parent-education we have in mind, that is the kind of parent-education being done in Paris at *L'Ecole des Parents*. In co-operation with the Section's

Secretariat, the group is studying Swiss and French publications.

Owing to an accumulation of work resulting from the preparations for the 1956 N.E.F. Conference and the re-organization of the Section's work, the Exhibition—*How children in Holland live and learn*—has had to be postponed again. A number of diagrams on teacher training, teacher shortage and class scales should form the background for the children's work. A few days at least are needed to study the official statistical data on which they have to be based. In the meantime the work-group of nursery school teachers promised a project, and other materials from a youth centre in Amsterdam have come in. So we are hopeful that the delay in sending the materials to our Australian friends will be compensated for by a greater variety of materials from Dutch schools.

Some time ago Miss S. N. Dickie, Secretary of the Border Branch (South Africa), informed me that the President of that Branch and Principal of the Selborne Boys' Primary School, having read of our project in *The New Era*, were busy looking out a similar project to be followed by local Primary schools. Through their local section they hope to organize a similar exhibit which

they hope to have ready by the end of this year. Miss Dickie kindly offered me this material for exhibition in Utrecht and asked me whether we would send our exhibition to South Africa first on its way to Australia. There is no question but that we will do whatever we can to arrange this additional exchange.

Most active were the work-groups for Mathematics and Physics. They met regularly once a month.

The Art Centre, 'Werkschuit', organizes a small exhibition of children's art work in the Rotterdam Museum for parents and teachers.

On the invitation of the Executive Committee of our Section the following Inspectors took part in the International N.E.F. Conference for Inspectors of Primary and Secondary Schools: Mr. A. J. S. van Dam, State Inspector of Dutch Secondary Modern Schools; Mr. P. F. van Overbeeke, Inspector for Municipal Primary Schools in Utrecht; Mr. A. W. Wagner, Inspector for Municipal Primary Schools in Amsterdam. Mr. J. G. L. Ackermans, State Inspector of Primary Education, Nijmegen, also attended the Conference, at the request of the Netherlands Government.

SUSAN FREUDENTHAL-LUTTER, *Secretary*

Book Reviews

Der Mensch in der Erziehungswirklichkeit Peter Petersen.
(Verlag Irene Setzkorn-Scheiff-
hacken, Mülheim, Ruhr).

It is as well at times for teachers to stand back from their immediate task in order to scan the horizon and get clear once again the ultimate aims of education. For deepening insight into our own educational beliefs must accompany increased experience, if teaching is not to degenerate into a mere technique. How often, indeed, are we not tempted to take refuge in a method, unconsciously accepted as sacrosanct and foolproof, because we are frightened or have failed in our direct human contact with children and all that that implies?

Recently there has come to hand the third and last volume of Dr. Peter Petersen's *General Theory of Education*. The first appeared as long ago as 1924, and the second in 1931: but the third has had to await publication until now, although it was written in 1950, shortly before its author's death. Dr. Petersen's name has always been linked in the minds of members of the N.E.F. with individual education and the Jena plan, of which he was the great exponent. But he was very

much more than that, and this final volume of his trilogy deals with those basic principles which make of the new education an essential element in the constructive forces of our time. The book, though it achieves a tragic actuality seen against the background of totalitarian rule, is not a mere product of this experience but represents a natural development of the argument of Dr. Petersen's first two volumes.

His thesis can be outlined as follows. There are two sides to life; the controlling, technical and rational side, which is epitomized for us in science; and the creative and imaginative side which is to be found only in what Petersen calls the magical depths of the soul. The cult of the intellect and its invention has become a threat to mankind itself. For this cult has led us to treat human beings as things instead of as magical realities, and we have attempted to explain the nature and purpose of existence in terms derived wholly from our conscious life. Science has thus become divorced from humanity, whereas it should be steeped in something deeper than is to be found in the search for truth in purely conceptual terms. For in spite of its powers of prediction it sees only one aspect of life and cannot deal with

those unconscious depths which are only expressible in the symbols of poetry, art and religion.

With this as his background, Dr. Petersen outlines his theory of education. As every educator is aware, in so far as he is more than a mere instructor—and every teacher is inevitably more—he is concerned with an ethical process. Educators are forced to postulate an aim or purpose in human life, and are therefore compelled to look further than the mere 'what' and 'how' of existence and to consider its 'why', searching the depths of the unconscious for meanings to be found in life. It is true that, though we can train others, we cannot educate them and they must educate themselves. Nevertheless, the influence of a true 'educator' is profound, since it induces us to look beyond ourselves to a world of values that once glimpsed is never afterwards forgotten.

But the true educator will not try to impose his own views or way of life upon others. For he knows that freedom and initiative are essential to human growth, and that each of us—the child as well as the man—has his own developmental pattern, and will feel frustrated and lose heart or rebel, if that development is denied, or is warped by social stresses. What is

needed is an integration of the whole man, of the conscious and unconscious. At decisive moments, those moments of crisis which determined our life-history, such an integration is required if we are to be free, that is released from subservience to one part only of our psyche.

Thus the ethical task of education is to help us integrate ourselves and thus enable the ultimate creative forces in life to work through us, so that at critical moments the decision is made from inside with the whole weight of an integrated personality behind it. But such unification can only be effected unconsciously and when we are in touch with something beyond ourselves, which we can sense but never wholly grasp. It is this that religion reveals to us by means of symbols which arise beyond consciousness. It is not a question of any particular religious formula, but of being bound to a transcendental reality. From our link with this will come that creative power which determines all truly ethical action.

Perhaps this summary over-elaborates the psychological implications of his book. But the influence of Dr. Jung is clearly apparent, and his conclusion, that a purely humanistic education is inadequate, is derived from direct experience and not from the appeal to any dogmatic point of view. This becomes clear in his discussion of faulty methods of education and of those forces (he calls them anti-educational) which lead to a glorification of the ego and of all that maintains and strengthens it in its isolation from the rest of the world.

He distinguishes between two kinds of mis-education. The first, which is linked to organizations of a military type, we can see at work in Sparta as well as in the Jesuit Order. In both cases the main stress is laid on the virtue of obedience, and every aspect of conduct is supervised from above, even thought being controlled by the encouragement of spying and the reporting of the expression of any dangerous views. Thus a homogeneous community, hierarchically controlled, is created, which learns to act like an army and obey without questioning the commands of its leaders. In Sparta this kind of organization arose from the need to maintain Spartan supremacy in face of the ever-present threat of the surrounding Helot population. In the case of the Jesuits it was the deliberate creation of the founder of the Order, who believed that the only way to combat heresy was to organize his followers on a military basis.

But the humanist approach is equally faulty in so far as it leaves out of account the social aspects of educa-

tion. In fact the cult of the individual has gone so far that in the case of such a fine poet as Rilke, it finally led to the rejection of all social relationships, even of those of love and friendship, and self-fulfilment was thought possible only in the realms of poetry and dreams. Even such a humanist as Herder was forced to take a one-sided view of history in order to make it conform to an ideal pattern which it does not possess.

The mistake of all such idealists is the same: they refuse to recognize that the active world, in which we work and strive, is an egoistic world. Hunger and nakedness spur us to activity. Human selfishness cannot be wished away, for without the desire to gain something for ourselves part of the variety and charm of society would disappear. It is against this background that all ethical action takes place, and without which morals would have no meaning.

It is easy to see that this account of society is a recognition of the egoistic tendencies in ourselves and the realization that they are an essential part of our character. To ignore them, or pretend that they are evil in themselves, is to make a fatal mistake. Their influence is not thereby lessened: in fact it is rather increased, and they will break out all the more violently when they can no longer be controlled.

The truth is that most of us wish our children to be strong and vital, to be able to defend themselves and be themselves. But we *also* wish them to be 'good', to be considerate of others and to become compassionate and understanding people. The art of living consists in combining these two objectives, and it is an art that requires the intervention of creative energy. Hence the ambivalence of the word 'aggression'. It implies the entry into action of those aggressive tendencies which we call good or bad according to the part they play in any act. For, though they need to be controlled by our higher self, we cannot do without them since they supply the energy without which the spiritual side of our nature with all its idealism would cease to function . . .

Dr. Petersen sees in force, which he calls Satanism, the most serious obstacle to all true education. This force is the desire to dominate, to make of the self and its limited ideals and experience the centre and touchstone of all other things. Opposition is considered error and opponents enemies, a resort to force being seen as the only way to settle problems.

Leaders in every department of life are prone to this anti-educational attitude. For they secure their position through voicing the dissatisfactions and frustrations of particular groups,

so that, when conflicts and disagreements arise, they only too easily take to violence, since it is the easiest way out and requires no creative act of synthesis. Then the collective unconscious takes possession, the natural bonds of community life are broken and evil assumes control. We must become aware of the danger of this development, if we are to guard against it in ourselves and in any group to which we belong. The social virtues, which facilitate the functioning of our normal economic and community life, are quite unable to deal with this development, and indeed tend instead to support satanic power once it has gained control of the social machine. The only force sufficiently deeply rooted to counterbalance it is an insight into the real nature of man which is something that goes far beyond the merely individual and finds its expression in the ideals of love, compassion and service.

But for this realization here and now they need to be linked to the energies that lie hidden in our instinctive and egoistic nature. This linkage is only to be effected when we can draw upon the creative powers that exist in all of us. To aid their work is the fundamental task of education.

Wyatt Rawson

Development of Public Libraries in Africa. The Ibadan Seminar. (Unesco 1954. 9/6).

The findings and papers of the Unesco Public Libraries in the Africa Seminar held at University College, Ibadan, Nigeria, in August 1953, have more interest for English teachers and librarians than might be expected. For historical reasons we are familiar in the United Kingdom with the development of education and public libraries along parallel lines, but the Ibadan Seminar shows the development in Africa (also for historical reasons) of education and public libraries hand-in-hand and with considerable advantage to both services. It is neither desirable nor possible to compare the two methods, but it is suitable to study the results of educationists' and librarians' working together in a comparatively new field and from the international standpoint. The twenty-nine members (mainly Europeans working in Africa) represented most African countries and territories; and eight members were Africans. In addition, the Arab States Fundamental Education Centre, the *Union Mondiale des Organisations Féminines Catholiques* and the World Health Organization were represented.

The Report is arranged according to the three chief problems of the Seminar. Part I: Organizing Public

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Library Services in Africa. Part II: Providing suitable Public Library Materials for Africans. Part III: Professional Training for Public Library Service. The Final Reports of Groups and Papers prepared by librarians and educationists in Africa show work of a high order with considerable knowledge of the sociological background necessary for the successful development of public libraries in Africa.

Certain papers such as *Reading Habits of Nigerians* by Gbole N. Nwinkina, and *Reading in the Belgian Congo* by M. J. M. Domont, can have particular interest for English teachers and librarians who desire to fight the Comics and establish better standards in juvenile readers. The Ibadan Library Seminar is a further step at the International level towards literate Africa, but now is the dangerous time, when unsuitable or thoughtless book selection can do harm instead of good. Animal fiction in the wrong neighbourhood, lack of modern education books for English-trained African teachers, the wrong type of text book—such matters can give grave offence and so become of political significance.

The Ibadan Library Seminar shows the machinery to be excellent but it still remains for us to see that it is backed by suitable publications from

this country. One immediate result of the Seminar is the formation of the West African Library Association and may it keep that academic side in line with professional conditions.

G. S. M. de Montmorency

Filmstrip Catalogue, 1955. Educational Productions. Free on request to Head Office, East Ardsley, Wakefield, Yorks.

The great problem of modern educators is to speed up the learning process without increasing haste or pressure—indeed, haste and pressure desperately need *reducing*. This is a tortuous problem, for each year the possible content of education increases; each year the need for breadth of understanding along with detailed knowledge becomes more apparent. Consequently the teacher must draw to his aid whatever can assist him in increasing his efficiency, both as an imparter of knowledge and as an interpreter of the complicated world in which children are to-day growing up. This means, among other things, that he must make fuller use of the fact that about 84 per cent. of perception in the case of all but blind or partly-

sighted children is through the eye. Listen, Read and Write all have their important part of course, but, for sheer economy in teaching, Look holds a very special place, the more so as Look promotes Talk—that other formerly neglected stimulus to learning.

It is therefore both encouraging and delightful to read through a well-designed, comprehensive catalogue of filmstrip material which combines the general with the particular in an intelligent balance and has all ages and levels of learning in mind. Such a catalogue is the one under review. Educational Productions offer an admirable service. There can be no teacher who will not find in the sixteen main sections and sixty sub-sections in which the catalogue is organized material which will assist him in adding to the clarity and power of his teaching and in promoting discussion on and around its content.

In conclusion I would like to scotch the suggestion one still hears that the use of filmstrip in some way dethrones the teacher from his 'rightful position in the classroom. This seems to me complete nonsense. A good tool is for the use of a *person* in procuring his or her aims. A good tool is exactly what a good filmstrip is. A modern teacher needs good filmstrips just as much as

a modern artist needs good lighting; and for the same purpose—to add illumination to his work. The Educational Productions filmstrip catalogue offers a wealth of illumination.

James Hemming

Harlequin's Revenge. Margaret Stanley-Wrench. (Centaur Press. 6/-).

Margaret Stanley-Wrench is a Newdigate Prizer-winner, and her verse in these puppet plays is accomplished and often beautiful. The prose, however, properly used in the comic parts, is the sort of dialogue so often written by adults for children, which would be far better left to children to write, or make up for themselves. The plays as a whole are charming and might be quite suitable for human actors, if a thought elaborate in decoration for a full-size amateur stage.

This brings me to the most serious point at issue. Miss Wrench describes her productions in their original *milieu* of Mews parlour or rustic barn, and one gets the impression that her experience was highly enjoyable. They could indeed have been charming, for the plays are intelligent, the colours, lighting and music must have been

lovely, and the young audience no doubt enraptured. BUT . . . to entertain delightfully a party of entranced, uncritical children in a small room is one thing; to put the published results in the hands, say, of a struggling teacher with a class of forty and a full-size puppet stage is quite another. Any professional puppeteer would blench at the prospect of putting on, say, a performance of *The Three Tasks*, and it might take him eight months' preparation: ten characters, several important properties, which have to be picked up and carried about; fights, chases, and most impossible of all to the string puppet, embraces and The Kiss. There are several slight changes of clothing, which should always be avoided (a puppet cannot even change his headgear, except to have it removed or put on, and even that has to be done up or down strings). This little play is in six acts with four changes of scene, and an Epilogue and three interludes to be used or not. The author suggests, for full performance, parts or the whole of pieces by seven different composers not including one piece of jazz. One can envisage a distracted teacher behind the scenes changing, stopping and finding the mark on ten different records.

The fact seems to be that the puppet stage and puppets used by the author

were very small, parlour-size, some eleven inches only, and some eighteen, which is nearer the normal size. But she gives the size of her stage as three by three feet, though whether she refers to the actual stage floor, which is not visually important, or the stage opening, which is, we cannot tell. The normal stage opening for eighteen-inch puppets is seven by three and a half feet, and this is suitable to an audience of fifty, when raised, as it should be, about three and a half feet from the floor and the first row of spectators about seven feet away.

Anyone reading this book, and enjoying the concise and colourful descriptions of production, might well derive a lot of ideas and suggestions as to music, and might make some use of the plays. But anyone proceeding exactly according to the scheme as laid down would soon find themselves in great difficulties. There is nothing easy, romantic or haphazard about this form of drama. To get a drunken man across the stage, supported by another figure, such as one has seen when the Blumentheatre put on *Seraglio* in Munich, requires hours of practice and years of experience, if it is to be done so well that the audience will spontaneously applaud the drunken exit as good puppeteering, as the music of Mozart, is good.

Rhoda Dawson

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IN HOME AND SCHOOL

RELIEVING THE ANXIETIES OF PARENTS

ABOUT NEW METHODS IN NURSERY AND INFANT SCHOOLS

A. M. Martin, Nursery and Infant Inspector, Monmouthshire

CONTRARY to our conscious beliefs, many of us take a very conservative attitude towards long-established customs and patterns of behaviour, and any attempt which may be made to bring about vital changes in the established order are likely to be viewed with suspicion, until, in their turn, they have become the accepted way of life. This conservatism is very marked in the general criticism of ways of learning and teaching.

The image of a school which remains in the minds of most parents dates from their own childhood, and it is within this known background that they look for security and the possibility of mental progress for their children. They think of schools in terms of 'work', of rows of desks, of rigid ways of acquiring knowledge, of authoritarianism and discipline. The words 'play', 'freedom', 'activity', used so glibly in the educational world of to-day, do not, to the parents, mean that the child is gaining experience, but are rather symbols of wasted time, lack of discipline, noise and chaos. To those who have experienced delightful days in a well-run Nursery, or a well-run modern Infant School, such fears seem ridiculous, inexcusable. We overlook the fact that too many people have no such experience, that modern methods are an unknown factor, and that parents are over-anxious about the welfare of their children. They are influenced by the thoughts and loudly proclaimed opinions of unsympathetic teachers, councillors, school managers and the press. How are they to know that these, too, are often speaking of something of which they have no certain knowledge, but which they fear because it seems to overthrow many of the accepted traditions of school life?

Very early in our experiments with modern methods we began to realize that the reaction of the parents, and of the community as a whole, was something with which we must concern ourselves, if our work with young children was to

meet with the success we desired. In the Nursery School little difficulty was experienced save that, in an area where it was the tradition that children enter the Infant School as early as three years and with no special provision, mothers were often concerned, for a short time, that the children remained until after five years with no formal teaching. The contact between teacher and parent in the Nursery School is so intimate; and the fact that attendance is non-compulsory and a privilege helps to overcome tensions.

The Infant School was more difficult. We had believed that the methods used in school were the business of the teacher, and only the results achieved, the concern of the outside world; but we were soon to discover our mistake. Parents became worried by the unkind remarks of our critics. 'They only play at that school now,' these said. Did not the children talk of playing all kinds of games, and seldom speak of work? Sometimes mothers came to school and we talked to them. We believed that, in time, a Parents' Association would solve all our troubles. We tried to explain our belief that within each child is the full possibility of his own growth and that the work of the teacher is to help him to educate himself. We said that children must be allowed to express their own personalities, and that true freedom is self-discipline. Sometimes they listened patiently, but all too often they came back with the question, 'What about reading and arithmetic?' It was difficult to make them believe that painting, using clay, building with bricks, woodwork, are all part of the learning of basic skills.

The quicker external results obtained by the old methods in such subjects as reading and arithmetic tend to impress the uninitiated and make them respect traditional ways of teaching, while condemning a less formal approach. However much we may deplore the emphasis on Grading Examinations, or the judging of a child

as a success or failure by its results, we cannot ignore the influence of these procedures on the parental attitude towards education, even at the Infant stage. It is easy to argue that powers of concentration, a quick responsive mind, the ability to reason or to sum up a situation with accuracy, are all part of the preparation for the later stages of education, but to demonstrate this as a concrete fact is very difficult.

At the time of our first experiments, controversies in the national and local press were not helpful, while Group Managers were openly sceptical when we asked for teachers who were in sympathy with modern methods. One man insisted on referring to them as 'Utility Methods', while 'We believe in teaching the 3 R's' was a remark too often heard, or again, 'We were all educated by the old methods', with the implied criticism that there could be little wrong with such ways. The influence of years of war was forgotten when juvenile delinquency was on the increase, and Activity Methods which had never been tried were blamed for the very faults which they might have helped to correct. Time, we were confident, would give us concrete evidence—in the children's work, in their happiness and self-confidence—to justify our methods, always provided we were allowed to live through the early stages. We were convinced that to achieve this we would need to create in the community outside the school sufficient interest in modern methods to allow us time to prove, or to explode, our own theories. As opportunities came, so we became more sure that we must make parents and officials our allies and not our foes.

A group of managers, who were antagonistic towards the methods being used in a small Infant School in the area, decided to send some of their members to visit the school to bring back their own report on the work being done. We asked only that the County Inspector be informed of the day of the visit, so that she might also be present. She was at the school at nine o'clock, but the visitors did not arrive until 9-10 a.m., believing from past experience that it would take this length of time for the school to settle to work. They were amazed to find how much work had already been done, but even greater was their surprise to find so many of the older children reading and writing, when the rooms were so full of many interesting things to do. As the morning was drawing to a close, the Mayoress,

who was one of the visitors, was handed a batch of letters, spontaneously written to her during the morning, posted in the 'pillar-box', and delivered by the 'postman', resplendent in his uniform. It will suffice to quote only one remark made that evening at the Group Meeting. 'If I had a child of school age,' reported one of the women, 'I should want my child to attend this school, or at least one using the same method.' This remark, reported in the press, did more to relieve the anxieties of the parents than any words of ours.

A SIMILAR incident occurred some months later, in an area thirty miles away. A local newspaper headline had read: PARENTS OBJECT TO PLAY-WAY, and the report told how the managers had received complaints that the head teacher of one of the Infant Schools had introduced Free Activity Methods, and that the children's work was suffering in consequence.

A few days later we arranged for some of the Managers to visit the school and observe the method in use. The school had been in existence as an Infant School for less than six months, and only one free hour in the morning had then been introduced. One of the first to arrive was a woman who had served on public bodies for over thirty years. She was taken to the Reception Class and was soon absorbed in the work of a small group of five-year-olds, who were making cakes. Chatting with the children, she remarked, 'I wish I could make cakes like that'. 'You can,' came the prompt reply. 'But I do not know how', persisted the visitor. 'That is easy,' replied one child, and taking her by the hand led her to the shelf near the baking table and read to her the recipe for the cakes.

At their own request, the Managers were taken to a neighbouring school where the whole day is free, so that they might watch the method more closely. Two days later, parents and friends were invited to meet in the school hall. We had decided to treat this meeting in a similar way to that used in our Teachers' Groups. A display was made of paintings, clay-modelling, and handicrafts—the work of children from several Infant Schools where experiments with modern methods were being carried out. We explained in detail what happened in using these methods, we read extracts from the children's news books and imaginative stories. Records of children's work



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showing their progress from five to eight years were left about for inspection, and many and searching were the questions asked, in a meeting which lasted four hours. The Lady Manager was present and spoke of her experiences at the school. 'I have been a Councillor for thirty years,' she said. 'Had I been taught by these methods, I should have made a far better Councillor.'

The press faithfully reported some of our arguments, and as a result, we were asked to speak to several organizations about changing methods. We seldom refused, but each time we allowed exhibitions of children's work to speak for us, and we believe that this gave us the opportunities we needed to smooth away many worries and misunderstandings.

IT seemed to us that one of the ways in which we could help our own parents was by teaching a wider public. They are influenced by public opinion, and it is not sufficient to deal with their individual problems. One further experience will illustrate this point. During that year, we were asked to send someone from our Education Department to speak to the Area Conference for Wales of a Women's Organization. The subject was to be 'Modern Trends in Education', and a whole day of lectures was indicated. We spoke a little about the Nursery School and then of modern methods in Infant Schools. So much interest was shown by the women that we did not get farther than this stage. The interest in photographs and samples of children's work was greater than we had ever anticipated. Again we were bombarded with questions, which revealed how widespread is the anxious probing of parents and their desire to understand. During the day, one of the women confessed that she had incited mothers in her area to protest to the Director of Education against modern methods' being used in schools. 'I must go back,' she added, 'and confess how wrong I was, and persuade the women to give every support to the teachers who are trying to educate our children according to their individual needs.'

While the expressed desire for information must come from the parents or from public bodies, we, too, must be looking for the possible opportunities of helping people to understand our work. The co-operation of parents, their faith in what is being done for the children at school, is a very necessary ingredient for real

stability in the up-bringing of children. Once parents understand that in using modern methods the teacher is thinking always of the benefit to the child, opportunities to explain will come. It is not always possible to arrange for our critics to see children at work, but where this is practicable, explanations take on a new meaning.

The first surprise which people express on visiting a modern Infant School is that there is no lack of discipline, and that the only noise is that of busy children, eager and anxious to get on with the work in hand. Their happiness is so apparent that the most casual observer cannot but be impressed. We try to use this happiness to help anxious parents who so often have too rigidly mapped out their hope for the future of a child, before they can even guess what may be the right course for him. Happiness, in itself, is part of the equipment for life. To be happy, and to possess the quality necessary for knowing how to make others happy, is essential in the making of a good life. Without this, all other success may well be failure. That children are deeply affected in their work by emotional upheavals at home is often not realized by parents. A careful use of 'news books' can convince them of the necessity for providing, within our school life, means whereby the child can relieve his own tensions. A closer link is made between the home and the school, and parents find new ways of helping their children.

One of the most difficult problems for parents, and for many teachers, is to accept that a child who reads at five is not of necessity more intelligent than a child for whom reading is delayed until nearly seven. 'Reading Readiness' is just

another catch phrase. They will appreciate that to-day parents wait for maturation in physical development, and do not think it clever for a child to walk before his limbs are ready. So we see a generation of children with beautiful, straight healthy bodies. It is our task to make them accept maturation in the mental life of the child in a like manner. Nor are children to-day so dependent, in the early stages, on gaining knowledge or experiences through reading. Wireless and television play a large part in their education, as is again shown in the child's early writings. They accept space ships more easily than we accepted the motor car, and the type of education which sufficed at the beginning of the century must give way to methods which can fit the child to live in an Atomic Age.

In trying to explain the needs of the child to people who have little contact with our schools, we found that we, too, had benefited. We realized how clear our minds must be, not only regarding methods, but in what we meant by Education. We must weigh and sift, learn to accept and reject, weld the good of the past to the good of the present, and be willing to learn how to profit by our mistakes, just as we expect the children to do. We must believe in the work we are doing, we must have faith in the child and all that lies hidden in the mind we are trying to open. The jargon of the educational world must not be used lightly and without meaning. It must have for us a deep meaning and a real relationship to the children with whom we work. Only then can we hope to inspire others and give them faith in changing methods and the teachers who use them.

NUMBER : ITS SOCIAL SIGNIFICANCE

B. M. Culham, Senior Lecturer in Education, Avery Hill Training College; Author of "The First Stage Reader"

THE story of Number is one of the most interesting aspects of history. From simple beginnings it proceeds through ever more complicated human relationships, always closely inter-related with personal and social experiences. Number is a tool which has served us as we have progressed from travel on foot, through various means of transport, to flight in the air and the serious contemplation of flight into space beyond; from the barter of goods between neighbouring tribes, through the extension of commerce, to the

complicated system of foreign exchange by which we trade to-day; from blowing across reeds and beating on skin stretched across a hollow gourd or skull, through many varieties of winds, strings and percussion to the orchestra of to-day; from the crudest beginnings of all that we know to-day as the arts and crafts and even more obviously the sciences and the humanities. Progress has depended upon the increase of skill in reckoning more exactly in terms of size, space, weight, cost and other qualities of Number.

Since it has made and still makes such a contribution to man's way of life, it is not surprising that the importance of Number has been emphasized by teachers down through the years.

The Ground of Arts, 1543, devotes its first chapter to "the declaration of the profit of Arithmetic". In it it says that the use in astronomy, geometry, music, and physics is apparent, in law a judge deals with the distribution of food and debts, in the army there must be provision of victuals, artillery, armours, and wages, and so, mentioning all the trades and professions in turn—merchants, bailiffs, auditors—it shows the special need of each of a knowledge of arithmetic: "with the help of it you may attain to all things."

In *The Young Gentlemen's Course in Mathematics* (1714), Edmund Wells, knowing arithmetic only as a useful art yet thinking all should know it, wrote in his foreword: "Gentlemen should not be so brisk and airy as to think that the knowing how to cast accompts is requisite only for such underlings as shopkeepers or tradesmen. No gentleman ought to think Arithmetic below him who does not think an Estate below him."¹

In our schools to-day Number is regarded as one of the basic skills and there is much enquiry and experiment in methods of teaching it. Because of differences among ourselves there is much variety in our teaching methods and, as every community is likely to be the richer for the variety within it, let us hope that we shall never finally agree on an absolute answer to many of the questions that arise. There will always, then, be stimulation from trying to understand problems from a different point of view.

But because our children, who have to do the learning, have certain characteristics in common, it must be that satisfactory teaching methods have certain essentials common to them all. In all children growth is a continuous process. Learning is part of growing and is only possible in continuity. In our zest for methods we sometimes offer bits and pieces of learning which the children find difficult or impossible to join together. At every stage wholeness could be possible if Number were seen as part of living and not, in the first place, as a school subject.

We sometimes expect children to go forward from a level of attainment which they have not

yet reached. In this way, through our anxiety for results, we remove further from the children their chances of success.

In all children progress through their own effort leads towards further effort and renewed success. Their best effort will be made where they see meaning and purpose. The meaning and purpose of Number can be seen most clearly in the ordinary experiences of living.

The forming of habits is part of the business of learning. Useful habits set the mind free to tackle the next problem. Useless habits tie up precious energy and have to be broken, sometimes with great difficulty, before progress can be made. Many useless habits are formed round a paraphernalia of teaching aids, rules that cannot always be applied, and elaborate methods of setting down, which would not be required if we kept in mind the real needs of children.

It sometimes requires great courage to look at a scheme or syllabus which has become traditional and to break with it wherever it no longer serves good purpose. But this is being done from time to time by many of our head teachers and their staffs. This spirit of adventure sometimes quails in teachers as the children grow older. It is often to be found in an Infant school and then as children approach the upper part of the Primary school we feel we must be cautious. Often where there is a break in the continuity of methods this is made by a teacher in his determination to be helpful. Many opportunities for real progress are being missed where, in our concern for methods and 'results', we lose sight of the purpose of our teaching.

We have seen that Number arises in the form of problems related to things around us. This is true of mankind in general and of children in

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¹ *The Teaching of Arithmetic through 400 Years 1635-1935*, by Florence Yeldman, Ph.D. (Harrap.)

particular. Many of us allow that Number for infants entails a widening experience with materials, because we know that infants are learning to establish themselves as persons. We know also that juniors have to learn more and more to find their place among their fellows. Juniors, because of their further development, are capable of taking more responsibility than infants and they need more opportunities than infants for learning to respect people and properties, because they are now able to pass beyond the more egocentric phase of growth. Yet so many teachers still firmly believe that materials are for the infants and written and 'mental' work are for the juniors.

In one Infant school I found a child with a sum before him:

1 top 9d.

1 kite 6d.

He wrote this sum, put down his pencil, held up his two hands in front of him and wagged his head once, twice . . . five times to his left hand, six, seven, to his right. He then nudged the girl sitting next to him and said, 'You hold up your hands.' Using his left hand and both of hers he started up again and somehow arrived at fourteen for his answer. This he wrote as 14d.

The teacher in this class understood that the problem of how much money we would need if we were to spend ninepence and sixpence could be solved by handling the money, real or improvised. She understood, also, that even those children who were ready to solve it without the money could soon learn to check up for themselves to see whether they were right. But, she explained, next term these children would be juniors and so they must learn to manage without materials.

In a Junior school, I found the chances of meaningful Number for the majority of the children spoiled by the fact that the children must be prepared for selection and transfer at eleven plus. In a Report on Arithmetic in Primary Schools it is stated that: 'One outstanding fact, evident to all experienced examiners, is that it is useless to set an examination paper which will not give a good spread over of marks, and where the intelligent candidates will not, on the whole, show up well. As long as some Junior schools invalidate the examination papers by coaching too intensively for them, some examiners may continue to set a wrong type of paper. A frequent

experience in a Grammar school is that Primary schools are too advanced in the technique of getting certain types of sum correct, yet have little intelligent understanding of fundamental arithmetical ideas.'¹

The best results will never come from sacrificing the needs of one stage to the standards of the next. They will come rather from an appreciation by the teachers of the variety among children at any stage.

Every child to-day needs not complicated meaningless sums, but skill in reckoning, with speed and accuracy, in everyday situations. Some children, besides needing Number for everyday purposes, seem to have a special bent for it. Such children need to go as far as their ability allows in order to realize themselves. These may, later, specialize in their work or recreation in pursuits with a Number bias. Evidence of the wide range of capacity to learn Number has been found in many classes where children are even as young as six years.

If in a class of children of chronological age six we set out to express ability in terms of a Number Age, we could find a range extending as wide as from four to eight years. We might then expect to find, proportionately, a range of eight to sixteen years at the chronological age of twelve. Of course many qualities of endowment and opportunity contribute to such differences, so that the situation is too complicated to be expressed finally in terms of a Number Age. But the highest achievement which can be enjoyed by each member of any group of thirty or more humans represents always variety and not uniformity.

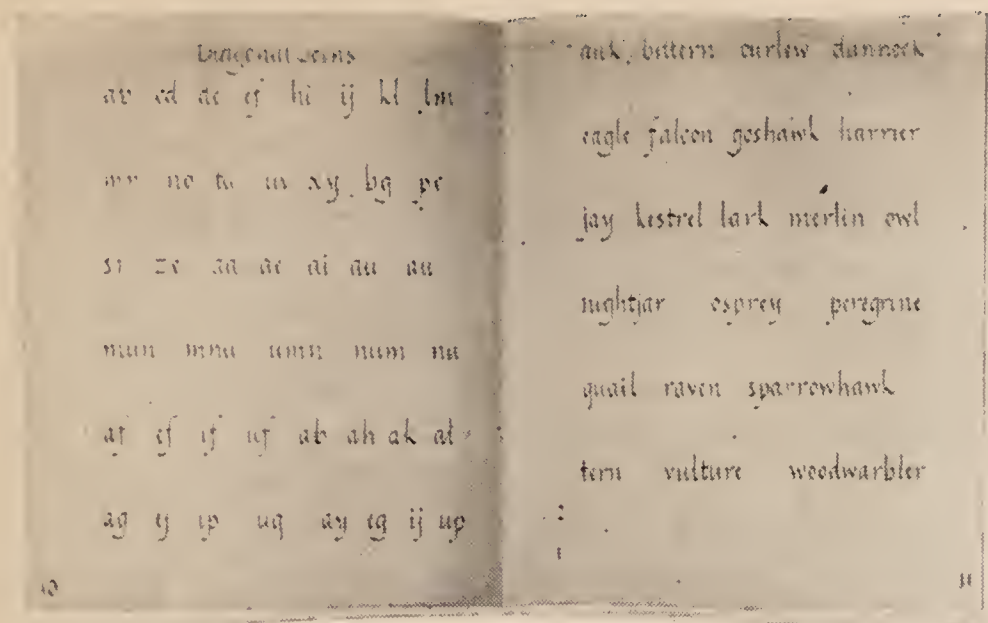
In Infant and in Junior schools, where teaching is based on a system of changing groups, progress is surer and results are more real than in schools where class teaching is the basis.

It has been said that, 'an understanding of the way in which the human mind first became aware of facts which are now commonplace can often throw light on the difficulties met by children.'² There have certainly been occasions when some of the difficulties met with by teachers have been resolved through inspiration from the history of Number.

With mankind the problem was there first, for example, the need to ensure the safety of the

¹ *Arithmetic in Primary Schools*. (Longmans.)

² *Man and Number*, Smeltzer. (Black.) (Quotation from review of this work in *The Friend*.)



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sheep. To help to solve the problem, the sheep must be counted. The counting must be placed on record. Then the means of counting must be practised and improved upon. Habits were formed and the counting and recording became less difficult. Very soon life presented new problems about sheep, in relation to the feeding and clothing and sheltering of man, and the fact that man had solved the earlier problems of counting helped him to satisfactory solutions of the later ones.

To-day we have learned to count and to measure in most skilful, complicated ways and Number is a tool which has been used towards increasingly rapid, and sometimes astounding, advances in science. To-day perhaps we are more fully aware than ever before of the urgent need to discover, not only greater skill, but better, more socially profitable ways of using that skill. Suddenly it becomes clearer than ever before that the tool which enables us to be creative can surely be our means of self-destruction unless in using it we can discover or recognize ways of living more generously together. No teacher to-day can fail to see the need for emphasis on the social as well

as the intellectual aspect of Number. The difficulty often is to put this emphasis into practice in present-day classroom conditions.

In some cases, classroom conditions can be improved by re-shaping syllabus and time-table. Where the syllabus consists of facts and rules about figures, many difficulties arise because the meaning of the facts and figures is not clear. Children learn to do certain kinds of sum. Often, in an attempt to make the task less difficult, certain ways of setting down the sums are insisted upon and the children are drilled until habits are fixed. Annabel, finding her sums difficult, asked her mother for help and learned at home to subtract 29 from 55. Although she could arrive at 26 for the answer, she was then in trouble because the sum could not be right unless some figures were written about it and some of them crossed out. For this child, and for many others, the only right way to subtract 29 from 55 is

$$\begin{array}{r} 10 \\ 55 \\ - 29 \\ \hline 26 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} \text{|||||} \\ \text{|||||} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

A great many children learn to 'do' sums of a particular kind, which they are able to do only in particular circumstances. They tell us 'I cannot do that kind,' or 'I have to do them this way.' In order to achieve such results much time is spent each day. Number is given a large part of each morning on the school time-table. It becomes a meaningless routine followed in some cases by a period called 'activity', which cannot be allowed until after the children have had their Number.

Looking back for inspiration, we have seen that Number was not in the first place a separate meaningless skill which had to be acquired before its value could be known. Unless the meaning and purpose had been there first we could have managed without number. It always had its beginnings in some experience of living. It did not begin with figures. The figures were contrived after so much experience that it became necessary to set down some record. In fact our 2's, 3's, 4's, etc., are more than figures. They are symbols—signs representing values.

When they are taught as figures 4 or 4 will do equally well to the five-year-old. 6 take away 2 leaves 6 for the confused six-year-old! (He explained it by saying $\overset{6}{-}2$ and if you take that 2 away you can still see that 6 there.) The backward ten-year-old says fourteen and writes as he says it, 4 (four) 1 (teen) because he can hear it that way. Confusion arising as a new step is introduced becomes cumulative. This is one reason why it is argued that a child entering the Junior school may learn Number much more rapidly if the Infant school has not pressed him into written work too early.

So much that is called written Number and even some that is called 'Mental' is not really Number. It is not, as it should be, a means of showing children how to use their intelligence in Number to enable them to apply their learning to any eventuality that is likely to arise.

No very fixed classroom situation is likely to occur in life outside the school, and so we must be watchful that our classroom is 'a point of vantage' rather than a place from which the world is shut out.

The Number syllabus in some schools is still like that by which I myself taught some years ago. And recently a head teacher said to me,

'We feel we ought to be progressive but we must keep safe because our results in Number are so important.' The fact that Number can eventually be set down and marked definitely right or wrong has given some of us a mistaken notion of results.

Man did not learn units, then tens and units (written as t and u) then pence, then shillings and pence (written as s and d) before he proceeded to the next step, eventually arriving at 'problems' by calling his units nuts or plums, or sheep. Yet it was only after I had taught according to a syllabus of this kind for many years that I discovered several children who knew twopence and fourpence made sixpence, while a sum like two and four together meant nothing to them. Only then did I realize more fully the relation of number to the background of experience.

If the curriculum were thought of 'in terms of activity and experience,'¹ the syllabus would be built up around counting, spending and saving, using the clock and the calendar and so on. The headings under which everyday number is required are such as the time-table, the score, the price list, the mileage, the weight, the voltage. According to the experience that can be provided, one heading may be emphasized more than another or new headings may be included. Within such experience, the need for certain techniques and rules can be appreciated and drill will be undertaken with enthusiasm. Short intensive drill in these conditions will produce results much more quickly, so that long hours of drudgery in the name of Number will not be required.

If at every stage we tried to follow the example which life has set us, we would think of our syllabus as experiences giving rise to problems; of the fact that problem-solving requires useful habits; of enough drill, and only enough, to get these habits established; of written work as the placing on record of Number which had its origins in real problems. We would then be better able to establish continuity in the children's learning. Our work would be vital to ourselves as well as to our children, and as a result of it the children would learn to make use of their knowledge.

Number is an adventure upon which it is our duty to set the children, not knowing ourselves how far it may eventually enable them to go.

¹The Report on Infant and Nursery Schools, 1933. H.M.S.

HOW A GRAPHOLOGIST CAN HELP CHILDREN

Marianne Jacoby

PARENTS or teachers who send children's handwritings to a graphologist either want to know more about the child's potential abilities, in order to adapt the education to the child's needs, or they wish to discover the cause of problems in the child's relationships to themselves or other children.

A graphological analysis describes and explains the child's personality in its main trends and has therefore another aim and use than educational tests: these largely examine the child's intellectual capacity, and are suitable for children who can respond to the test situation. But intelligence tests, particularly group tests, might give insufficient and misleading information about children with emotional problems, and about those who possess more dormant than ready-for-use abilities. These children cannot respond as the tests require; and other testing methods must be found. Graphology may be one of them. A graphological analysis has an advantage for the disturbed or very introverted child in that he or she need not come up for an interview, the analysis being made from the child's exercise books, his letters and odd scraps of writing. The best material is always the most spontaneous writing, because it expresses the individuality more readily than do laboured efforts at penmanship.

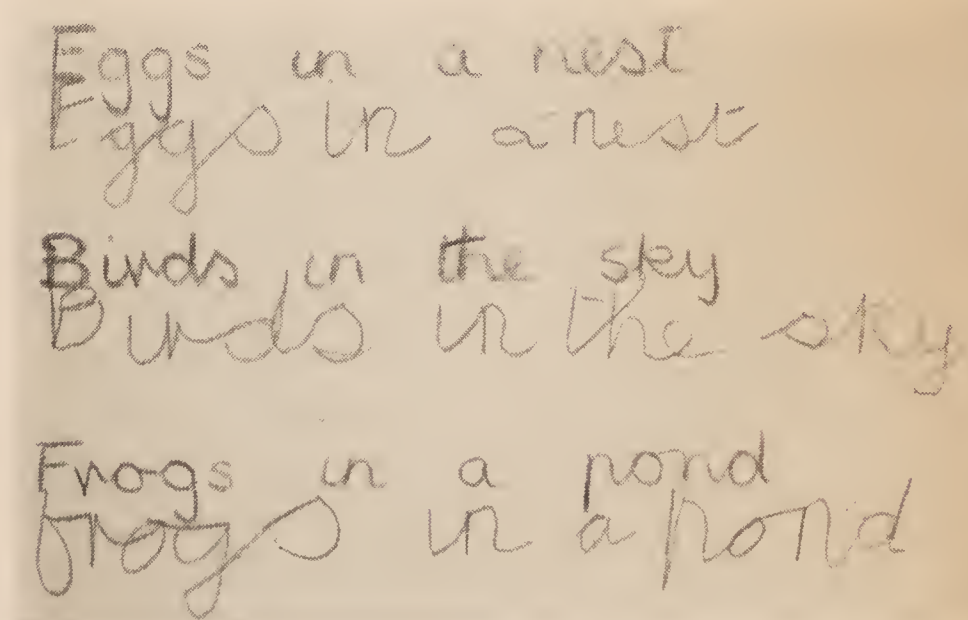
The six specimens of handwriting illustrated here are within the normal range of problems and achievements. Graphology gives its best service within this realm, as the handwritings of prodigies and of severely psychotic children go beyond its general principles.

Graphology is not a new subject, but in recent years it has been linked with the psychology of the unconscious and its imagery. However, graphology is not a method which establishes hard and fast facts; it depends more on an intuitive understanding of the trends and patterns of the personality. It has no fixed signs of absolute definition, and it yields no standardized results.

Figure 1 is the handwriting of a boy aged 7 years 4 months. The time was shortly after the war; he was at boarding school, a small over-

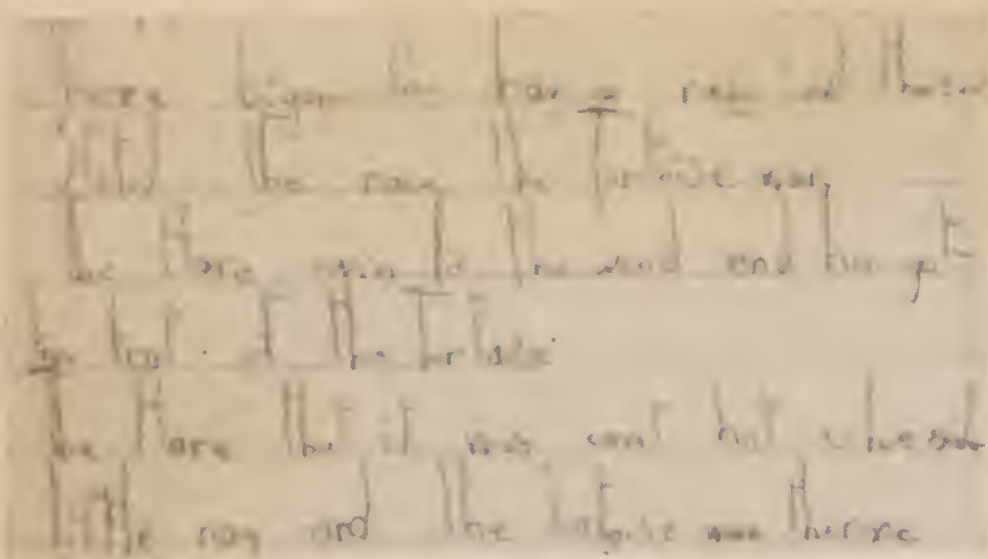
crowded school. The teacher's complaint was that the boy simply could not be taught. He would not concentrate and was disturbing in class. There was little information about his home background. The parents were abroad and the boy had to stay at the school until their return. The advice in this case was not difficult.

The specimen shows the boy's writing underneath the teacher's lines. He was expected to copy the teacher's writing, but he does not do so. He uses his own letter forms; he makes loops where the teacher makes none; he boldly connects his letters where the teacher does not connect hers; his t-bars do not cross the t-shaft but are pushed out ahead. These divergences from the teacher's forms are a graphical record which can be summed up thus: the boy is highly developed, original and imaginative. His intelligence is above the expected level. He asserts his independence with some gusto. In other words he appears to be naughty and to want his own way. On account of his intelligence, the advice given was to move him up to the next form. To give him more scope for his imagination and independence it was suggested that he should have more free play and in particular be allowed to make contact with the animals about which he had to write in his exercise: the pigs, the frogs and the birds—it was a country school. Relief came immediately but the roots of the trouble may not have been touched.



Eggs in a nest
Birds in the sky
Frogs in a pond

Figure 1

Figure II—reduced to $\frac{1}{4}$ size

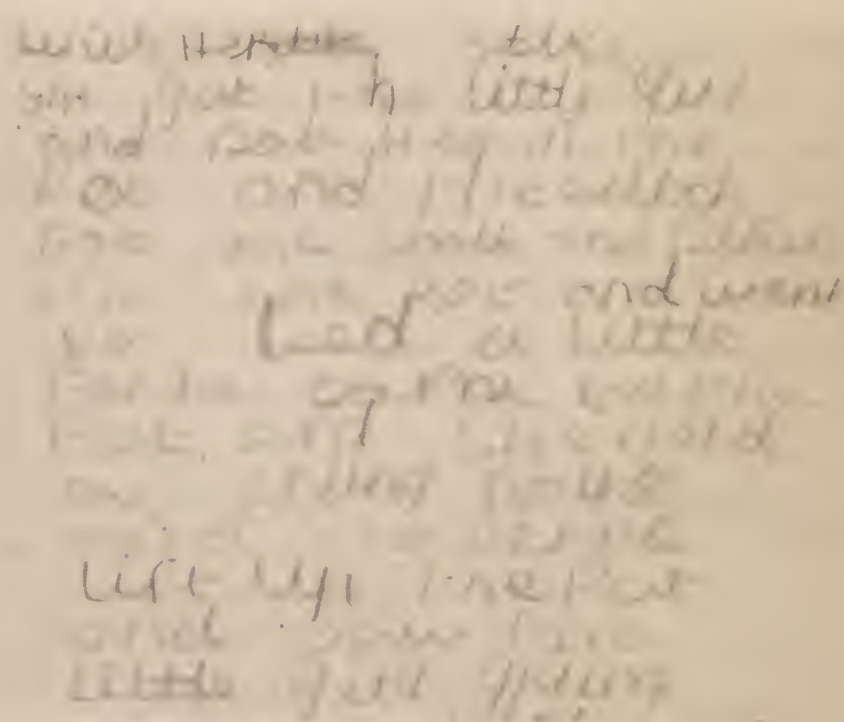
The next writing (Figure II) is of another boy of the same age. He presents quite a different problem for which there was no such immediate solution. He, too, was difficult to teach. The long drawn-out shafts of his letters and the high t-crossings express that he is trying to out-reach himself, for him the sky only is the limit. On the other hand, the small letters are full of mistakes and peter out toward the end of the words; letters are also disconnected but connections had not yet been taught. This writing which reaches up so high has no roots below, the graphical expression of an intellectual ambition which is neither supported by a superior intelligence nor does it allow the personality to be rooted in the instinctual spheres. The boy is pushed far above his level and has lost touch with the ground beneath him. He was an only child. His mother had married a man whom she considered beneath her intellectual and social standards, and was using her little boy to make up for her lost ambition. Simple advice was not possible in this case. Mother and son were unconsciously inter-linked in the sense that the son was to be the ideal and spiritual husband of the mother, not a child any more but a rare though inferior intellectual being, wholly dependent on his mother's directives. His written words which dissolve towards the ends show signs of mental exhaustion. He did not understand what was demanded from him and had to be carefully guided back into his childhood. As a more normal relationship between mother and son had to be established, they were both referred to a Child Guidance Clinic.

Figures III and IV present opposite in graphical expression, or as the artist would say in layout. The first page looks as cramped and disordered as the second one looks empty and over-organized.

(For lack of space only a few lines can be shown here.) The writers, who are both girls, differ greatly in their personalities and experience of life, and they need different ways of education.

As a general rule the writing page, in itself a rectangular empty space, is symbolically speaking a recipient, a container, in much the same way as the painter's canvas is the container of a picture. For the child who writes, the empty page is like a room—our living rooms are also rectangular in shape—into which he must fit his script. As the writing is the expressive movement of the child, it can be assumed that the way and order in which he arranged his script on the page will give a clue to the way in which he relates himself to his surroundings or to his world. The same equation expressed in psychological terms is the relation between the ego and the unconscious, i.e. the activity of the ego is expressed in the writing movements, and in their distribution on the page; and the page itself represents the unconscious or the background. The two girls make quite a different use of this background.

In Figure III the script is so arranged as to form a column, care is taken to touch neither the left nor the right margin, while the script column in itself is an almost undistinguishable mess of lines, curves and dots. The legibility is poor, but it could be worse. This odd distribution on the page, together with the round, receptacle-like letter formations, reveal that the writer is filled with fantasies and feelings for which she finds no straightforward outlet. The occasional heavy pressure indicates sudden, increased emotional activity, that is temper outbursts. The blank

Figure III—reduced to $\frac{1}{4}$ size

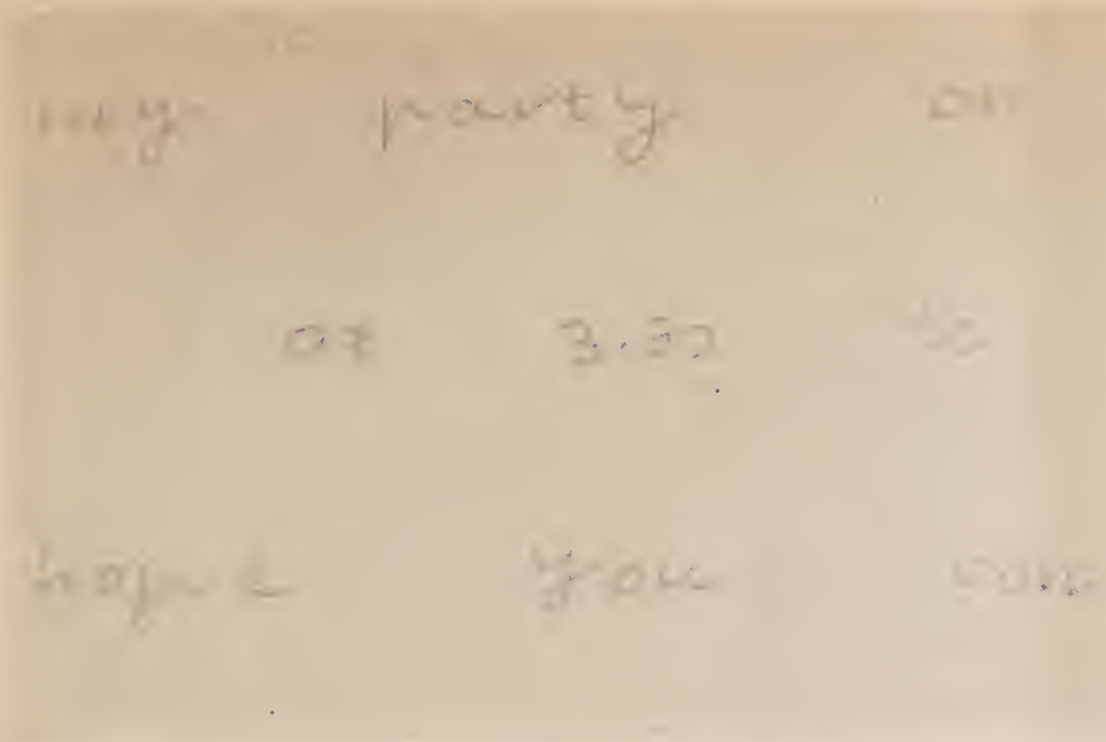


Figure IV—self-size

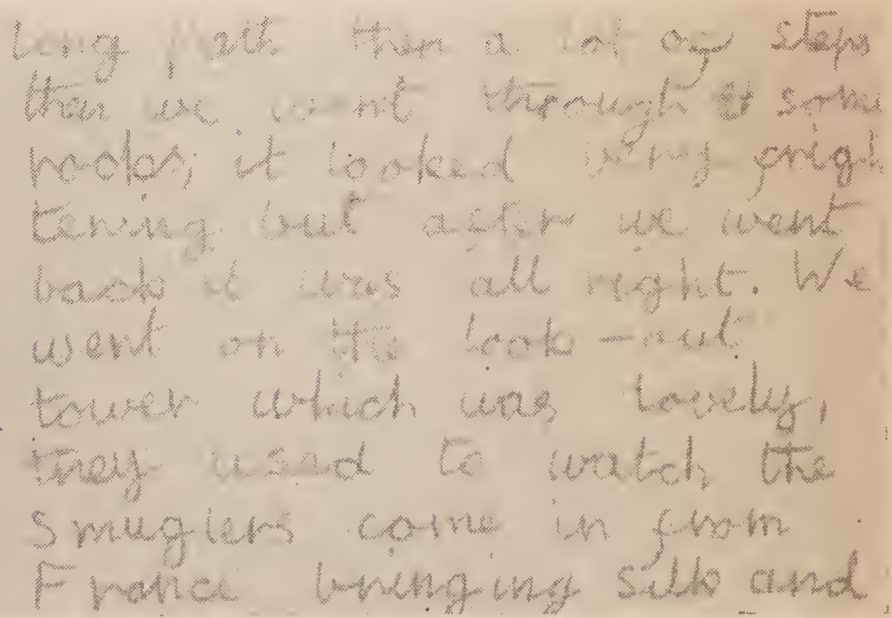
margins left and right reveal, however, a fear of spreading herself out in her world, as if she dare not look left or right. She wastes space and opportunity, because anxiety prevents her from expanding into the available space. As she contracts her writing space, she only gets three words into one line. The girl's experiences, and the complaints about her, verify what she expresses in her writing. As a baby she and her mother were bombed out, the mother had had the same experience in the 1914 war and suffered from 'bad' nerves. The father was more normal. The child, at the time of writing ten years old, could never come to school unaccompanied and was frightened of noises and wild boys. Her achievements in school were sufficient but she was found to be too quiet. However, her anxiety which kept her withdrawn at school burst out into violent tantrums at home, and the nervous mother found her impossible to manage. She was not sent to a Child Guidance Clinic, but she was taken out of school and sent to a special tutorial class, where an understanding teacher could devote more time and attention to her than could have been done in an ordinary school.

The specimen given in *Figure IV* is by a girl of eight. She leaves more space untouched than filled with letters; so that the words appear like isolated islands. This is an apt expression of someone who feels left out and alone. No feelings, no bridges stretch across the gaps. Hence there is no intimacy of contact, no love-relationship. But in spite of this expression of loneliness there are no signs of helplessness; illegibility and touched-up letters usually suggest this. On the

contrary, the girl writes with great care and attention to detail; the round letters in particular are written with loving care, which is as much as to say that she possesses the ability to love but cannot get her feelings across. But her island-like yet well-carried-out writing means something more. She is very conscious of her activity, as has been said already; she over-organizes her activity, and the empty spaces in between also express that she is the lone and only master on the scene. The high drawn-up and well-aimed

upstrokes of her y's denote aggression. She was disliked or respected by her young friends for being bossy. It means that she overcompensates her fear of loneliness by organizing and dominating other people. She has trained herself to be more conscious of good opportunities than are other children. Her occasional sharp and angular letter-forms express an obstinate refusal to smooth herself out and to adapt herself. She caused some stir and trouble at home and at school, but was not actually a problem child; she may have escaped this for the good reason that she managed to delegate her problems to others, as is so often the case in larger families where brothers and sisters help each other.

In order to follow up a case, and observe the change in a writing as the child develops, another letter of the same girl two years later is shown (*Figure V*). The change is considerable; but for a few blanks the writing space is used to capacity

Figure V—reduced to $\frac{1}{4}$ size

(the margin on the left does not contradict the good use of space and will be dealt with later on). The letters have grown in size and are penned with energy and determination. She has, for the most part, outgrown her isolation, or it would be better to say that her isolation has also undergone a change. She is not any more alone on the map; she is not wholly isolated, but shuts up parts of herself. This is shown where she rigidly closes all letters which can be closed. She keeps feelings, fantasies and also actions shut away from the world. It would be highly indiscreet to probe into these any further; besides the secrets and the whispers and the cliques are characteristic of so many school girls, to whom loyalty to their own friends becomes more important than loyalty to the world of the grown-ups.

There are three more features worth mentioning in this script. There is the very neatly-kept margin on the left side. This is, alas, not so much a token that she keeps her belongings in a tidy state, but is more likely an expression of her newly-discovered predilection for formal behaviour, which will include an interest in her own looks, dresses, hair-style and physical discipline for special occasions. There are signs of a good intelligence in the general legibility (which is only slightly impaired by the narrow rules of the writing paper, which is a difficulty with which most children have to put up also in their exercise books) and in the likeness of the same letter forms which reveal on the one hand an ability to remember and on the other an ability to discriminate. (It is always a sign of low intelligence in a child if letter-forms are mixed up or if one and the same form is repeated for different letters.) One feature of the script is still recognizable from the girl's earlier writing and that is the heavy and disconnected upstroke of the 'g' and 'y'. This stroke comes right up from the lowest, that is the instinctual, zone and denotes a dissatisfaction with her femininity. It is typical of a vigorous girl who wants to be a boy. There are disliked and therefore repressed fantasies about the relations between boys and girls, and in this deeper sense she is still inclined to feel unrelated which her closed-in letters indicate. However, many girls of the pre-adolescent stages write such bud-like letter forms.

The last specimen (*Figure VI*) is a type of script which comes to the notice of many teachers, and usually alarms them by its messy look. It is

almost imperceptibly, trailing
behind it. The young man
and lighted a cigarette
aged gentleman sitting
and said "Excuse
oblige me with a light?
man offered his lighter to
proceeded to light a ci-
garette holder. "You
asked handing the light-
ing man nodded, and turn-
tough the window at
white cloud ~~then~~ cloud
old-aged gentleman lean-
ed on cushions again

Figure VI—very slightly reduced

indeed alarming, and teachers intuitively relate the disturbed writing to the difficult child they know. The passage looks as if it were written not by one writer but by several, each of whom followed a pattern of his own; hence the confusion of direction in the script. As a rule such children are advised to get more practice in penmanship in order to acquire more control over the act of writing. This advice seems necessary from the teacher's point of view, but from the psychological point of view it does not help the child. For, if he has to direct more conscious control to his writing as such, a deficiency will appear elsewhere, i.e. there is not enough consciousness to go round. In other words, if the penmanship improves, the child will be worse at other activities, and the anxiety on the part of the teacher will find no relief.

This 'patchwork' script is a spontaneous expression of a segmented (schizoid) personality: the patterns of behaviour, intensity of relationships, interests in special subjects and the whole

life of the child are likewise patchwork; abrupt changes occur everywhere.

This particular specimen is taken from an essay of a sixteen-year-old boy. The letters, although they vary in slant and pressure, are nevertheless penned distinctly and discriminately—the token of a high intelligence. Softness of lines, contrasting with eruptive pressure, can be seen in many scripts of adolescents, and this boy is no exception. But in spite of the signs of irritability, the writing shows, at least in part, originality of letter formation; originality of expression is even deliberately searched for. At the time, the boy wanted to become a journalist and although this may have been a short-lived ambition, it was nevertheless justified, as journalism is not incongruous with his abilities. Furthermore, it is of the utmost importance, that such a boy has an aim before him, to which he can refer as something of his own. Such an aim, if it is sufficiently charged with emotion, can serve as a substitute for the missing (ego) centre inside his personality. Matters would go better still if a teacher could take the boy on and relate himself to him, even if the latter seems incapable of responding. The different slants of the boy's writing show abrupt changes in his behaviour: he will eagerly come forward at one moment and at another will reject as interfering all contacts which come towards him; he will be as dependent on others

as he is cut off and out of touch with the world. But the hallmark of all his variations is that not one variation or pattern is more genuine or lasting than another.

The boy had no happy relationship with either of his parents. At the time of writing the mother, who loved the boy, was in hospital, suffering from an incurable disease and there was no one else to look after him. The father, himself unstable, was rarely at home. On account of the father's changing preferences and dislikes for different types of schools, the boy was never at one school for long, and was, in turn, a good scholar and a failure.

Although this last specimen is perhaps extreme, it depicts the mentality of more children of broken homes than is usually assumed. These children make on their teachers demands which go beyond the realm of the general school, and their personality problems are largely the task of the psychologist. But many teachers believe that they must be able to cope with any type of child and will burden themselves, avowedly or unavowedly, with all the failings of their pupils.

It is at this point in particular that an analysis of a child's handwriting can help the teacher (and the parent) to decide which of a child's problems are beyond his capacity and function and which are his own responsibility.

PROBLEMS OF THE NEW TEACHER

2.—PROBLEMS ARISING FROM RELATIONSHIPS WITH ADULTS

Francesca Enns

Relationship with the Head. In most cases the new teacher will have been appointed by a Local Education Authority and allotted to a school. Neither he nor the Head will have been given any choice in the matter. Often the teacher has had no opportunity to see the school before he starts work, and the Head knows very little about him. Yet I have the impression that only a small minority experience difficulties in their personal relationship with the Head. The foremost problem seems to be the fairly frequent discrepancy between the way in which the student has been trained and the methods of the Head. I want to give here two examples of how this problem affected two former colleagues of mine.

In the first case the teacher was a young girl

of very pleasant personality and very fond of children. She had found her college work really difficult, and was a 'weak' teacher. When her Head condemned Activity Methods and insisted on a strict, formal approach, this new teacher was seriously disturbed—not because she strongly believed in the method in which she had been trained and felt her head mistress' approach wrong, but because she could not teach in any way other than that which she had been taught. To unlearn, as it were, all that she had acquired with great difficulty, and to switch over to a new system worried her to such a degree that she wanted to give up teaching altogether.

Somehow she managed to struggle through a very harassed year, after which, when she had

fully adopted her Head's methods, she felt happy again, only regretting the 'wasted' years in College.

The second case concerns a friend of mine, a mature woman who had been a secretary before entering College. A very intelligent and able person, she was also a strong teacher. Her Head was very kind and efficient, but what might be called old-fashioned. My friend was given the reception class. The Head insisted that the children, some of whom were not yet five, should start learning the alphabet and do reading phonetically. My friend complied with her wishes but also introduced wall-sheets and numerous reading devices. Free Activity was not on the time table, but it proved possible to use the Art and Craft lessons for this purpose. So my friend was able to submit to the Head without entirely forsaking her own ideals.

I have the impression that in the Junior School the Head usually allows the teacher more latitude in the methods he uses than in the Infant School. Nevertheless, the new teacher with the less 'academic' approach is sometimes left for years in charge of the C class, 'where it does not matter so much.'

I heard of one new teacher in a Senior School who found it hard to get on with her Head-mistress for the opposite reason—the rather unimaginative girl found it almost impossible to work under a Head, who had, in her own words, 'weird ideas'. Yet even when the probationer year is over, changing schools is not always an easy matter, because of housing and transport.

Other problems in adult relationships which the young teacher may meet are those which any beginner encounters in his first job. Some new teachers complain about too much supervision, not having been prepared for a revival of the trying days of school practice. Others feel slighted by too little attention, or worried because of lack of advice and help.

Relationship with the staff. The problems of a different approach to teaching which may affect the relationship between new teacher and Head may affect also his relationships with the staff. Sometimes the whole staff may deride and criticize the way in which the newcomer was trained, sometimes the staff may be divided among themselves on this question. The worst is when one faction is pro- and one anti-Head.

On the whole, the new teacher's problems are

those of anyone who, for the first time, has to work, eat and relax with a group of people, sometimes of the other sex. These may all be delightful, but he may find also gossips, bores and the occasional difficult personality. Perhaps a teacher has a greater need for the society of adults than in the other professions, and has often less opportunity to eat and relax for a short while other than in the staff room. (Balconies with deck chairs for sun-starved teachers have not been thought of.) His relationships with the rest of the staff may colour his happiness or unhappiness. The new teacher in most schools settles in happily, unless he is so imprudent as to form a hasty friendship which ends in quarrel. It is almost impossible to be on no-speaking terms with a colleague!

Under ideal conditions the whole staff is like a band of brothers, all united in the effort to do their best for all the children in school, who are very sensitive to fraternal strife. In fact this ideal condition does exist in many schools at the beginning of the autumn term. But teachers are more prone to suffer from slight irritations than people in other professions, and as nerves get frayed harmony suffers. For the new teacher who is inclined to overspend his energy, the problem then becomes how to preserve his good temper, and how not to magnify grievances.

Quite a lot of petty troubles could often be avoided if the new teacher were given concrete information about the innumerable detailed actions necessary for the running of the school. For instance, a young teacher who does not know that music is taken in the hall at certain times, is bound to infuriate a colleague by sending her children through to wash their paint jars. A great many *faux pas* are committed innocently and could be easily remedied with one word from a member of the staff. But the staff usually feels it is the business of the Head to 'tell', while it is not possible for the Head to realize that many things that are a matter of course to him are far from being so for the new teacher.

Many new teachers have said, 'I wish I had been *told* . . .' I myself caused inconvenience and a waste of time through sending two of my boys to empty straws and milk-bottle tops into the wastepaper boxes in the boys' playground instead of into the proper containers in the girls' playground, of which I knew nothing because they were hidden by fencing. This trivial error of

mine could so easily have been put right. Instead, my two boys often disturbed a cricket lesson; the milk-bottle tops and straws were taken out of the paper baskets and thrown about by other boys, teachers were annoyed, the caretaker was annoyed—and yet, for a long time, I was not told.

Relationship with parents. The Head decides whether the new teacher shall have any relationship with the parents. In some schools, even Infant Schools, teachers are completely debarred from contact with parents. In others it is fostered and encouraged.

In the schools where the teacher has no contact with parents he loses an important means of assessing the child and often of being able to help him. On the other hand he will be prevented from making blunders or from feeling resentment at the wrong accusations or mere stupidity that comes sometimes from parents. I can remember two cases where my contact with a parent produced no good results.

I was in charge of a B stream of seven- to eight-year-olds. One boy, Fred, was languid-looking, very quiet and completely lacking in self-assertion. One day when he looked more sleepy than usual, he asked me whether he could miss Physical Training as he did not feel well. I thought he had a cold and did not insist, but after three days asked him to join in again. When he undressed I noticed spots, which looked to me like chicken-pox. Fred told me his mother had said they came from eating fruit. As it happened the doctor was on the premises and confirmed chicken-pox.

Some months later his forbidding-looking mother burst into one of my lessons. 'I hear the little boy who sits next to my Freddy is suffering from asthma. He should not be allowed in school—it is catching.'

I tried to convince her that asthma was not catching, but she interrupted me with, 'I know different. I know all them diseases.'

At that juncture I should have referred her to the Head, instead of which I could not resist the temptation to remind her of Fred's chicken-pox.

The Head would probably have promised to remove Fred from the neighbourhood of the little boy suffering from asthma, without going into the matter of infectious diseases at all. The result of my faulty handling of the situation was

that the woman took a dislike to me. However much she might have provoked me I should have sought her good will in the interest of the child. Though Fred was too passive a child for open revolt, there is no doubt that after this visit, he lost interest in school work.

Another case where my contact with the mother was detrimental to my relations with the child concerns a boy called Ivor. This boy was attending a Child Guidance Clinic but I was not told why. He was very pale, never looked you in the face and only spoke in a whisper. During play-time he hovered round the teacher on duty. Ivor could read fluently, in a sort of mumble, but would do no other work.

I took great trouble to gain this boy's confidence. Gradually he would talk to me—though he would not speak to the children. I found him very intelligent. By and by he showed some interest in work and in the social life of the class. When he volunteered to look after the gym shoes and even asked whether he might read aloud to the class, I began to feel he was really getting on.

That very day his mother came to see me. She accused me hysterically of doing the boy nothing but harm. 'I have just seen the psychiatrist and he says Ivor has regressed since he has been with you!' Somewhat offended I quoted all the instances of Ivor's improved behaviour.

'Who are you to contradict what a psychiatrist says? My husband—he is Ivor's step-father, but he could not be better if Ivor was his own—says I should take him away from this school and I have a good mind to do so!'

I managed to remain quite composed and referred her to the Head. The mother said she had no time to see him, neither did she later on take any steps to remove the child. Ivor's behaviour towards me did not suffer from this encounter, but I could not help wondering whether the time and energy I spent on the particular child was justified. Though I did not want the resentment I felt against his mother to influence my attitude towards the child, I began to ask myself whether the extra attention I had given him was fair to the rest of the class. Nevertheless, Ivor improved steadily and was discharged from the Child Guidance Clinic.

When his mother came to see me on Open Day she again asked accusingly: 'Why has such a brilliant boy as Ivor done so badly in the end of

term tests?' It did not matter what I felt on that occasion, for Ivor was going up to another teacher, but it might not have been helpful if he had been staying with me!

In all cases except these two, I have found contact with parents very revealing and of mutual interest. Often a bad-tempered and complaining parent, after her grievance has been discussed, leaves convinced that the teacher is doing her best for the child. If she had been able to talk only to the Head, she would probably have been promised redress, but confidence in the teacher would not have been restored.

The parents whose attitude I find most difficult to bear are not those who have an exaggerated idea of the ability of their child, but those who belittle him. I had a little boy, Barry, who was left-handed and had little muscular control in his hands. He was ashamed of his poor writing and always shielded it with his other hand. A very shy child, he began quickly to thaw and developed into a lively, very attentive child, who could give good answers, in fact he was getting on very well.

When I saw his mother on Open Day I had nothing but good to report about him, but his mother only stared at his books and kept on harping about his bad writing. 'I could cry when I look at this. It is too awful. When I think how beautifully I could write at his age. Oh, I think he is terribly backward altogether . . .'

No doubt after this encounter I encouraged the boy still more and my sympathy for him was increased. But all the same, such parents leave a teacher with a feeling of depression and impotence.

Dealing with adults, particularly where emotions are involved, needs experience, maturity and wisdom. The new teacher has been trained to teach children. To deal with the occasional parent who is over-enthusiastic, unfair, ignorant or sometimes even bad, he will have to draw on his own resources of common sense and tact. I believe most new teachers would rather risk a *faux pas* than be completely cut off from the parents. The majority of parents are in any case pleasant and sensible people.

One of the problems I have not solved yet is the case of a seven-year-old girl Brenda. The child had a remarkably good memory and was very quick at mental sums; but she could do no written sums nor could she read. I soon noticed

the peculiar angle at which she held her books. Bad eye-sight was confirmed and glasses prescribed. In them the girl could do written sums and began to learn to read. But soon she came to school without her glasses; she had forgotten them. Even if she brought them I had constantly to remind her to put them on, which she seemed to resent. She fell back in her work and became inattentive.

One day her mother wrote me a rude letter; she would like to know what was upsetting the child in school? Brenda had complained about stomach ache and she had taken a day off from work to take her to the hospital, where nothing wrong could be found.

Brenda told me that her mother had said she should not wear glasses as they make her cross-eyed. I reported this to the Head who asked the mother to come and see him. She denied ever having said such a silly thing, but made no secret of the fact that she did not like her pretty girl's appearance to be spoiled by spectacles. Nevertheless she promised to encourage the child to wear them for school work. For a time Brenda did so, with a corresponding improvement in reading and written work until again she started 'forgetting' them.

The child could not make progress in reading without glasses, on the other hand my insistence on her wearing them might have easily turned her against reading altogether. Her loyalties to her mother and her teacher were in conflict. For me, the fact that she should learn to read was all-important, for her parents, it did not seem to matter.

Was I right after all? The girl possessed a quite uncommon memory for the spoken word and for figures. Was fluency in reading a greater achievement than quickness in mental arithmetic? Might not the latter ability be less marked if the child came to rely more on written sums?

There is the problem: how far should a teacher go against the wishes of the parent, even if he thinks he is acting in the interest of the child? I asked an experienced colleague. The answer was: 'Why do you bother so much about this child? She is not your child, she is her parents' child.' This does not solve the problem: how much should one bother?

(To be continued)

?

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NEWS AND NOTES

NORTHERN IRELAND

With the publication in February of the Advisory Council's Report on Special Educational Treatment (The Ashley Report), the work of the Section's Sub-Committee on The Handicapped Child received a new impetus. The N.E.F. in Northern Ireland have, in recent years, missed no opportunity to voice their opinions on the unsatisfactory nature of the present machinery for ascertaining and providing for handicapped children, and it is highly gratifying for them to have their views so fully endorsed in the new report.

It is perhaps not generally realized that the system in Northern Ireland for the ascertainments of handicapped children differs radically from that in force in other parts of Great Britain. In England and Wales the school health services, including the function of ascertaining what pupils are in need of special educational treatment, is an integral part of the educational system. In Northern Ireland the education of handicapped children is governed by the Education Act 1947 but, to quote from the Ashley Report, 'the interpretation and operation of this act has been

greatly complicated by the Transfer of Functions Order 1948, made under the Public Health and Local Government Act 1946 which lifted responsibility for the school health service (which was taken to include the function of ascertaining what children require special educational treatment and what children are ineducable) from the local education to the health authorities. The Transfer of Functions Order, although made under an Act of 1946, had the extraordinary effect of altering the text and purpose of the Education Act which was passed by Parliament in 1947; and this has given rise to ambiguity and confusion. The most important effect of the Order is that the school medical officer is now a servant of the health service and not the education service.'

The Ashley Report goes on to point out certain serious consequences arising from this state of affairs. A strong recommendation is made for 'the adoption of a system modelled on the system operating in Great Britain, but if possible with a closer professional hand linking health and educational interests.' It is stated that the two most important features of the system in England and

Wales which ought to be copied in Northern Ireland are 'that ascertainment (of handicapped children) is not the task of an individual, but the result of the working together over a period and the production of pooled knowledge of a team; and that the actual decision is the decision of an impartial lay committee acting on the recommendations of the team.'

The Northern Ireland Section feel that in the Ashley Report a firm basis has been laid for the treatment of handicapped children in the province. They are most anxious that the report should be made as widely known as possible. Accordingly several meetings have recently been held with the object of discussing and clarifying controversial issues and making the public aware of the weaknesses in the present system of provision for the handicapped child. Again, at the Annual General Meeting in June, members had the opportunity of hearing a principal teacher and a

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school medical officer express their opinions on the recommendations contained in the Ashley Report. It is hoped to pursue the matter more fully during the autumn.

DANIEL F. MCNEILL, *Secretary*

TASMANIA Hobart Group

At the beginning of the year our Committee decided to adopt a more vigorous policy than in 1953, and established the following aims for the Group:

- (1) To increase parent-teacher co-operation, and provide an information service on progressive educational ideas and practices for both parents and teachers.
- (2) To spread N.E.F. ideas and ideals, and generally to make more impact on, and a greater contribution to, educational thought and practice in the community.
- (3) To increase the membership of the Group.

With these aims in view our Committee planned a series of six lecture-discussions on the theme *Your Children and You*. After holding three sessions on general topics, we began the series which lasted from June-November 1954.

On the whole the Group's new policy has been successful. Although our membership has not exceeded forty, all our meetings have been open to the public, and attendances have varied from under 10 to over 200, according to the popularity of the topic.

Our best-attended meeting was arranged in association with the National Council of Women and the Hobart Film Society, and the speaker on our subject of *Your Children's Films* was Miss Mary Field, O.B.E., the distinguished British expert on children's entertainment films. We were indeed fortunate that Miss Field's visit to Tasmania coincided with this topic in our series, *Your Children and You*. Miss Field gave an informative, entertaining and inspiring address to a large audience, and illustrated her talk with excerpts from three of her delightful children's films.

We ended the year with two very successful meetings on Secondary Education. The very large attendances of parents at these meetings reflected the widespread interest in, and concern about, the Tasmanian dual system of secondary education for all up to the age of sixteen. Our speakers at these meetings (all leading members of the Education Department) gave parents a great amount of interesting and obviously much-needed information on the systems of selection for high schools and the courses in high and secondary modern schools.

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North-West Group

Early this year a third Tasmanian Group, the North-West Group was founded, which included members from Devonport, Burnie, and all places as far west as Smithton and Queenstown. *Miss Di-Anne Maty* became Secretary and *Mr. Charles Macfarlane* President.

NANCY L. COLLIS, *Honorary Secretary*

Launceston Group

During 1954 the activities of the Launceston Group revolved mainly round two points: (1) What contribution could our group of NEFers make towards the solution of the problem of juvenile delinquency? (2) Techniques of group discussion.

Lectures and discussions were planned accordingly and members also formed several small groups which attempted to 'talk themselves into understanding'.

At the beginning of 1955, Robert Bream, group work specialist from the U.S.A., spent a week in Launceston and gave us very valuable assistance in our gropings towards more democratic procedures in all our activities.

Our work on Juvenile Delinquency continues with a definite bias towards prevention through greater understanding of its causes.

Don McLean's *Nature's Second Sun* has aroused great interest here and it is probably due to this book that Tasmania is pioneering a lecture tour by him. Don will spend ten days among us early in October addressing meetings and leading discussions in Hobart, Launceston and the North-West Coast.

Miss Layh represented the Tasmanian Section at the Weilburg Conference for Section Representatives in Germany this summer and has sent back a full and interesting report which will provide much material for future discussion.

E. H. PENIZEK, *Honorary Secretary*

Self Portrait of Youth. G. W. Jordan and E. M. Fisher. (Heinemann. 12 6.)

This is a refreshing book. Faced with the problem of running a recreational evening institute for boys and girls of 14 to 21 in a 'difficult' area of London, the authors set themselves the task of finding out more about the young people that came to the institute, and about other boys and girls in the area. Their method was not to slip into the accepted, stereotyped techniques of adult-administered questionnaires and interviews but to build up a team of their own members to probe the thoughts and feelings of other young people on such pressing issues for adolescents as sex, gangs, and how to treat us, the adults.

What results? A document that is not only full of life but also serves to shake a number of growing preconceptions about the adolescents of this era. It is often said that in a tough area—if anywhere—modern youth will not apply itself to any serious task demanding persistence. On the contrary, these young people rose to the invitation to explore the attitudes, feelings and ideas of their own group, extending their powers of judgment by exercising them, and revelling in the experience.

Or again, many might suppose that ineptitude with language would seriously block communication. Yet here is a typically pungent comment—by a girl on day-dreaming at work: 'I am often in a deep dream at work and then someone will brush by me and wake me with a start. I sometimes wonder if I have been getting on with my work as I have been so far away, but I find I have done quite complicated jobs like putting a zip fastener on a skirt or a dart in a dress . . . It's more like a longing than a dream.' (Add the abundance of mass glamour provided to make and fill the dreams, and one glimpses something of what commercial civilization is doing to the mothers of a few years hence.)

Further, it has commonly been supposed that the really tough adolescents are unclubbable, needing very special institutions to win their interest. Nowhere could be much tougher than this institute; a series of fifty problem cases given in chapter seven includes rape, prostitution, stabbing and larceny. But many of the sinners are remarkably 'normal' in most of their attitudes and reactions.

One is left with two convictions particularly. The object of useful inquiry is not 'the adolescent' but the adolescent in association with the contemporaries and adults near to him at the time. We adults get the adolescents we deserve. Secondly, the

Book Reviews

road to escape from egocentricity for the adolescent through the study of contemporaries and their problems—leading as it does, to forthright discussion—seems certainly one worth opening up in secondary education. 'How,' people want to know, 'do we pass on standards and values from age to age in an era of confusion?' This inquiry-discussion method seems to be an important part of the answer.

James Hemming

From Simple Numbers to the Calculus. *Mathematics for Everyman.* Egmont Colerus. Trans. B. C. and H. F. Brookes. (Heinemann. 12 6.)

When Lancelot Hogben's *Mathematics for the Million* appeared nearly twenty years ago, many readers quickly discovered that their serial numbers as citizens lay well beyond the million mark. Many of those who now tackle Egmont Colerus's book are likely to conclude equally quickly that, if the author's sub-title is to be taken seriously, their name is certainly not Everyman. Hogben's book was, of course, not a 'popular self-educator' as it claimed to be, although it was a successful and well worth-while book. *From Simple Numbers to the Calculus* is also worth-while but its appeal will be more limited than Hogben's supposed primer. It almost completely ignores the practical foundations of mathematics and its practical applications, and hence does nothing to illumine the dark and little understood passage from concrete to abstract thought which is the greatest practical problem teachers have to face at every stage.

The author assumes an interest in number as number, and seeks by easy stages with plenty of illustrations (of an abstract kind) to illumine the basis and meaning of number systems, irrational, imaginery and complex numbers and so on. He takes in his stride the essential topics in the usual school programme, but approaches these in a much broader way than is usual, and with far more elementary discussion and explanation than one meets with in the orthodox text books. It is, of course, not a text book—it is a discourse as distinct from a treatise. Something of the general character and vastness of mathematics does shine through, particularly regarding the basis and multiplicity of number systems, but the real generality and grandeur of mathematical concepts themselves never emerge as they do, for example, in Whitehead's little *Introduction to Mathematics*. With this

book, however, any reader can certainly test his own understanding of the basis of our ordinary numerical system. For example does the statement (p. 13), '15371 (Scale 10) must equal 155055 (Scale 6)' convey anything to you? Or can you give immediate assent to the proposition: 'In general terms therefore we could write a number in a general decimal system in this way

$$pb^2 + qb^1 + rb^0 + \frac{s}{b^1} + \frac{t}{b^2} + \frac{u}{b^3}$$

If you fail in these you certainly do not know what you are doing when you write down 253.174, for example.

Few teachers of mathematics with any claim to a good education in their subject will find anything new in this book, although the illustrative examples are well chosen and well presented, and some, like Archimedes quadrature of the parabola, may be relatively unfamiliar.

Teachers may well find pleasure in dipping, and some will doubtless be critical. The book does nothing to force upon our attention the basic problems of a liberal education which seeks to give some understanding of the realm of number and of its crucial importance in our contemporary civilization. It is thus of little direct use to those concerned with new education. But since much of the mathematical teaching in our grammar schools is still so rigid and unenlightened, it would be a useful book on the shelves of a sixth-form library. And it should appeal to quite a proportion of the growing number of adults who want to have one more go at trying to grasp the binomial theorem (if only for the sake of 'probability' and football pool 'permutations'—nowhere mentioned, by the way), analytical geometry and the calculus.

Ben Morris

The Royal Road Readers, Books I, II and III and Teacher's Book. J. C. Daniels and Hunter Diack. (Chatto and Windus, 1954. Book I, 3 -; Books II and III, 2 6 each; Teacher's Book, 4 -).

It may seem at first sight that these new Readers represent a return to what some teachers would call an 'old-fashioned' phonic method. This is by no means the case. They are a pioneer, and indeed revolutionary, attempt to correct the excesses of 'look and say'. The theory is clearly described in Part I of the Teacher's Book. This little essay of sixteen pages on *The Teaching of Reading* is excellent. In brief the method of Daniels and Diack is based on the following indisputable facts. The letters of the alphabet are symbols for

sounds. Letters in a certain order make the words which we read. We read from left to right and this process takes *time*. The fact that one sound is made before another is important because the time order of the sounds makes all the difference between one word and another. Learning to read words from left to right, and *letters* in words from left to right, is a fundamental skill that children have to acquire before they can read. (It should also be noted that immediately a child comes to write a word he has to put down letters in an order from left to right, and to do this correctly is to spell correctly.) As a result of these facts it can be said that, in a sense, you cannot learn to read except on a phonic method, because the essence of learning to read is to make sounds when you see symbols. Even on the pure 'look and say' or 'sentence' methods the child looks at words and then makes sounds. The essential question to be decided is at what stage in learning should the child be trained in the analysis of words into letters and sounds, as well as, or in place of, recognizing words as whole patterns. Admittedly most teachers use 'mixed methods' and vary the emphasis on phonic analysis with different types of children, or at different stages of progress. There are as many ways of teaching reading as of making coffee. But it is clear that detailed letter recognition must at some time be made in order to distinguish similar looking words from each other, e.g. *pin* from *pen*, or *house* from *horse*. Daniels and Diack are convinced that letter analysis should begin with the very first eighteen three-letter words which their Book I gives in the first few pages. Their method may be summed up as, 'Look phonically before you say.'

All systematic readers have some principle for limiting the vocabulary in the early stages. The 'look and say' primers usually begin with a very small number of words for whole word, sight learning. Hence the great amount of repetition and often a resulting dullness of content. *The Royal Road Readers* also grade their vocabulary, but on a consistent scheme of graduated phonic difficulty. The authors say, 'What we have done is to use in the first two books only those words in which no letter is silent and in which each has its most common sound-value; the letters *g* and *c* always hard . . . and the vowels short as in *cat*, *leg*, *pin*, *pot* and *rug*.' They have to make some exceptions in order to write stories, and use about forty additional 'special' words which do not follow these simple phonic rules. However English is in fact a much more consistently phonetic language,

when the rules are known, than the popular conception of it, which has grown up around our so-called 'difficult' spelling. But this phonetic limitation allows a large vocabulary from the start and Book I contains nearly 400 different words!

Another blow to 'look and say' is given by the authors' doubt of the assumption that children *do* see whole words before they see the details of them. They propose at a later date to give evidence to show how mistaken this assumption may be.

With all this basic theory the present reviewer is in complete agreement, and it is only with the proposed practical use of the Readers, and some of the content, that he has a few objections to raise. The first book almost certainly proceeds too rapidly to new material and its vocabulary of 400 words is too large. Not enough practice is given when new letter groups and the 'special' words are introduced. The crucial stage of proceeding from short words, each with a picture, to sentences—many of which are without pictures—is not built up slowly enough. For example, up to p. 20 we have had nothing but separate three-letter words with exercises on their analysis into letters, and yet by p. 30 we are asked to read, 'the wicked bandit whetted his cutlass.' Of course these difficulties may all be overcome by the teacher providing additional practice material, but, after reports on the experience of teachers with the book, the authors may well consider the need for a supplementary book to Book I, or its considerable revision.

On the assumption that children

will begin Book I before, or just about, the age of six there are many words unfamiliar at this age. The first eighteen words contain: *nib*, *rod*, *dot*, *nun*, *lad*, and later we find *hub*, *tab*, *sin*, *dregs*, *hilt*, *invalid*, *fens*, *flask*, *rasp*, *mass*, *mastiff*, *mussel*, *gossiping*, and others not often in a six-year-old's spoken vocabulary.

It also seems doubtful if most children when beginning to read will have the ability to write or copy out the words and sentences, which is the suggested method of answering the exercises in the text. However, the method does not *depend* on writing ability in early readers (and it would be a great mistake if it did), since there are ways of avoiding this difficulty by using sets of printed or plastic letters, or by spoken answers.

The stories in Books II and III are very good and certain to hold interest. They are the usual mixture of animal, adventure and Wild West stories, with a slight stress on robbery, presumably for the excitement this is apt to arouse in boys, and the possibility of pointing a moral at the end. The books are well printed and produced, with clear illustrations, although one feels that some of the men's faces are unnecessarily repulsive, even for villains, and there is a very frightening rat at the end of Book I.

The success of *The Royal Road Readers* can only be determined by their use in the classroom. All teachers interested in children's reading should try them, whatever their own prejudices, and compare the results with other methods at present in use.

A. K. C. Ottaway

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Music in Education. *Report on the International Conference on the Rôle and Place of Music in the Education of Youth and Adults held at Brussels, 29 June to 9 July, 1953. (Unesco, 1955. \$2.50 ; 136 ; 650 fr.).*

This is a substantial report of 330 pages, comprising seven sections in addition to the introduction, which states that this Conference 'was the result of close collaboration between Unesco, which was responsible for its organization, and the International Music Council, which drew up its plan of work'. It forms part of an extensive programme undertaken from 1949 onwards, in order to determine the place of the arts in general education and their importance in the formation of personality.

A published report of this kind forms a splendid record for those persons who were fortunate enough to attend the Conference and will serve to remind them of interesting personalities met, and no doubt, of fascinating informal discussions and private conversations, which are so often the most valuable part of such gatherings, for I believe it is the meeting together and sharing of problems and aspirations wherein lies the real justification for all the organization necessary behind a Conference of this scope. But the report is, of course, intended for a wider reading public, and I ask myself what it has to offer to those who did not attend the Conference.

First, I think, it makes me wish very much that I had been privileged to attend myself. My second reaction

is gratitude for this report, which enables me to note the common problems shared by my teaching colleagues scattered widely over the world, and to be reassured by the quantity and diversity of thought that is being given in the attempt to solve them constructively. This thought is being translated into practical experiments in schools of all kinds, from kindergarten to University level, and in many forms of popular education, to ensure that music shall play its rightful place in the enrichment of human life.

Perhaps the most striking thing that emerges is the agreement on fundamentals, coupled with a rich and satisfying diversity of teaching method and approach which combine to show the vitality which exists in the field of music and musical education. This I find inspiring and stimulating. I look forward to the coming academic year with renewed enthusiasm and a desire to re-think my own approach and try out new ideas, and so the Report justifies itself as far as I am concerned. I feel sure that many music teachers would have the same experience, so to them I unreservedly recommend this book. However, its appeal is, I think, far more wide-reaching than that. Anyone interested in the education (in its widest sense) of child or adult, or concerned with the changes that are taking place in society to-day will find much to interest him here. The spate of music which can reach everyone to-day through scientific achievements of recording, by radio, television, cinema or gramophone, presents many opportunities for the use of music in industry, remedial work, creative use of leisure or simply as entertainment. It seems that scientific achievement always presents humanity with a challenge and this is certainly so in the field of recorded music. There are dangers inherent in its unthinking or unwise use. The Report shows a healthy awareness of these and encourages constructive individual thinking about their avoidance, for a positive line must be taken, and it is here that this book can offer much to the lay reader, with no direct responsibility for the art of music, but as an important contributor to an educated public opinion, which has a considerable part to play in determining whether music shall fulfil its highest function in the development of mankind. No thinking person should ignore music which has for so long been significant in determining the cultural patterns of society, weaving its way into man's activities, emotions and spiritual aspirations. Not everyone, however, is consciously aware of the part music plays, and there will be

many who would not be tempted to buy this Report, or to take it from the shelves of libraries. Yet these would be valuable readers and to them I no less warmly press its claims than to those professionally interested in music and education. For those concerned with health, physical or mental, interesting lines of thought would be aroused by the article on 'The Curative Powers of Music', containing reference to its value in the training of backward or mentally defective children, to mention but one aspect. Here is a field in which much experimental work remains to be undertaken and one hopes that Unesco may help to further such research. Another article quotes Pestalozzi as saying that 'a man who knows nothing of music is unfit to bring up children.' In its context, this remark was aimed at school teachers, but one might suggest that it applies to parents too. I feel that Parent-Teacher groups might fruitfully discuss many of the ideas that appear in this Report, leading to more constructive direction of children's musical activities in the home. One that is indifferent to, or even actually hostile to what is attempted musically in the schools, so often hinders good work, and since 'more ills are wrought by want of thought, than any want of heart', we should do well to enlist co-operation from the parents.

There is much more that I would like to quote as a lure to the prospective reader, but space forbids, and in conclusion I must hope that this book will be widely read and discussed. I do not think any thoughtful reader will be disappointed.

M. A. Carnell

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Rebuilding Education in the Republic of Korea. *Report of the Unesco-United Nations Korean Reconstruction Agency Educational Planning Mission to Korea. (Unesco. \$1.75 ; 106 ; 500 Fr.).*

The United Nations Korean Reconstruction Agency (UNKRA) determined in 1952 to plan its programme in terms of years, and to seek professional advice as to what that programme should include from groups in various fields, such as health, agriculture, education and economic affairs. A request was made for the co-operation of specialized agencies of the United Nations Organization in the selection of personnel to study the educational situation in Korea and to make recommendations. Thus the UNESCO-UNKRA Educational Planning Mission to Korea was selected in the summer of 1952, the first group arriving on 4th September, 1952, to be

followed soon by the remaining members.

In accordance with instructions the Mission planned its work to occupy a period of not more than six months. About one half of the time was devoted to travel and field investigations in every important part of Korea. All existing types of educational work were observed, in terms of their physical setting, and many classes were visited and procedures examined in detail. As instructed, the Mission submitted a report of its survey of existing educational conditions in December 1952, which appears as Part I of this volume. The second part of the Mission's task was completed in February 1953, and its report on the recommended programme for reconstruction was submitted and is published here as Part II.

During the thirty-five years that they controlled this country, the Japanese established a great number of schools. Their primary purpose was the training of loyal subjects of the Japanese Empire. The educational system was, of course, almost the same as that of the mother country. After the Japanese defeat in 1945, many organizational changes were made in the educational system under the United States Army Military Government in Korea, and since the military government ceased operations in 1948, the Republic of Korea Minister of Education amended the Americanized system to some extent.

As stated above, Part II of this volume deals with 'Recommendations for Reconstruction'. Its first chapter is entitled 'The Educational Situation'. To begin with, the political and economic basis of education is explained. It is the judgment of the Mission that education can and must illuminate political questions by helping people to get the facts and to consider the significance of the facts in relation to all forms of political action. And it is hoped that by such a way of democratic education, the population will be able to clarify and improve Korea's political future.

On the economic side, the limitations and frustrations to which education is subject are even more drastically severe in Korea, owing to the war. There is a question of choice between having enough to eat and having education. But it has to be recognized that increased production of goods and services awaits trained personnel which only education can supply.

United Nations Civil Assistance Command, Korea, and UNKRA have done much for the Korean people by affording them facilities for relief and rehabilitation, including education. But the Mission is convinced that UNKRA should be enabled to begin

large-scale efforts in education immediately. Then the following recommendations are offered:

(1) UNKRA should secure, at the earliest possible time, the regular services of an established educational leader to head a Division of Education in the Korean UNKRA office, and with the consultation of that individual should build a small organization of educational specialists, with adequate training and experience, to shape the programme of UN assistance to Korean education, in terms of operational considerations.

(2) UNKRA should continue to offer advice and assistance, on a basis of co-operative planning and continuous evaluation, to the Ministry of Education of the Government of the Republic of Korea and to individual educational institutions—full administrative authority remaining in Korean hands.

According to the Mission's judgment, 'through the infinite array of particular difficulties and obstacles to the attainment of satisfactory results in Korean education to-day, there emerge a number of large and insistent problems, and those problems must be solved if education is to become a more dynamic force in strengthening the morale of Koreans for the sacrificial lot which is now theirs, and in preparing the country for the responsibilities of independence and freedom in the family of nations to which Koreans look forward so eagerly.'

Thus six of those problems are described:

(1) During the Japanese *régime*, what was to be learned, which was easily accomplished through prescribing the text books and insisting that the educational programme be confined to them, was thereby strictly controlled. Now Korean teachers wish to adapt their schools to modern requirements, i.e. to Westernize, and at the same time to preserve, the fundamental spiritual elements of Korean culture.

(2) School children are burdened with the learning of Chinese characters. This linguistic baggage that has to be carried by the schools and by the general population uses up enormous amounts of energy.

(3) In consequence of the ravages of war, over 80 per cent. of the former equipment, books, furniture, and the like have been destroyed or stolen. The problem is to secure housing and equipment of all kinds for minimum needs as quickly as possible. Moreover there is a dearth of professional people in education. Re-training programmes must now be devised and recruitment and professional training of new staff personnel instituted.

(4) Korean society is virtually devoid

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of research workers of all fields to-day. In education this is particularly serious.

(5) No schools are adequately financed and the burden of this cost is very unevenly distributed among the population.

(6) The highly centralized system of educational control operates as a deterrent to originality in educators and a block to 'grass roots' democracy.

It is interesting for me to find the following clause among Appendix II (Comments of the Korean Ministry of Education, Republic of Korea, on the Final Report):

'The Ministry agrees to your advice but as for adopting Japanese as a secondary foreign language, we must point out that it is still too soon to do so because the feeling of our people toward the Japanese is still too bitter. We must remind you of the fact that we were under the Japanese rule for over thirty-six years.'

Sumie Kobayashi
(Keio University, Tokyo)

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The Ling Physical Education Association, which is a non-profit making organization of physical education specialist teachers, has recently re-organized their specialized book shop which deals in books on physical and health education and allied subjects including games rules. Schools and colleges receive special facilities and can order on a sale-or-return basis. For further particulars and price list write to the Ling Book Department, Hamilton House, Bidborough Street, London, W.C.1.

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The Oxford University Press, Education Department, is arranging a series of six talks for teachers to be held at the College of Preceptors, W.C.1, on Saturdays, at 10.45 a.m.

September 24th: Reading and Understanding: A Free Discussion of Standards and Methods in Infant, Junior and Secondary Schools—*Panel:* Mrs. C. V. Williams, Mr. R. Mitchell, Mr. S. W. B. Watson.

October 22nd: The Pupil's Atlas at all levels—Junior, Secondary Modern and Grammar—Dr. F. C. Couzens.

November 26th: The Teaching of History—Topic, Patch or Chronological Methods?—*Panel:* Mr. C. L. Hamer, Mr. Ivor D. Astley, Mr. P. H. J. H. Gosden.

January 28th: Musicians in Embryo—Mr. J. P. B. Dobbs.

February 25th: Mathematics: Standards and Methods in Infant, Junior, and Secondary Schools—*Panel:*

Miss Dorothy M. Alderson, Mr. Arthur Worthy, Mr. F. J. James. **March 24th:** Classroom Practice with Backward and Retarded Children, 10-15 years—Mr. John Anderson.

For further particulars write to:
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THE NEW ERA

in home and school

*SCHOOL INSPECTION AND SUPERVISION**

Inspection as Leadership through
Guidance

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France

Louis François

Philippines

Pedro T. Orata

Canada

G. E. Flower

New Zealand

D. G. Ball and A. E. Campbell

N.E.F. Conference of Inspectors

J. C. L. Ackermans

News and Notes—French-Speaking
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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

INSPECTION AS LEADERSHIP THROUGH GUIDANCE

Ben Morris, Chairman of the N.E.F. International Conference for Inspectors of Schools, Chichester, England, 1955

THE title 'inspector' calls to mind, as M. Louis François says, an impressive and formidable personage, and it is doubtful whether altering his title to 'supervisor' or even 'adviser', for example, would ever do much by itself to alter the way in which others regard him. But the desire to find a new title is in fact indicative of a real change that is beginning to take place in the inspector's functions. What is the nature of this change, what are the duties and problems now facing inspectors in different parts of the world, and what kinds of solutions to the difficulties encountered are being attempted? It is with these questions in mind that Unesco is sponsoring this special number of *The New Era*, and it was with a view to affording inspectors themselves an opportunity to re-assess their own rôle that the New Education Fellowship organized, in April 1955 at Chichester in England, the first international conference of school inspectors ever held, a conference attended by twenty-eight inspectors from thirteen different countries. This conference brought out very clearly certain important features of the present situation. The recent expansion of educational services in most countries of the world, for example, has naturally tended greatly to increase the scope and number of the inspector's duties. Moreover, the nature of these duties varies with the different structures of educational control found in different countries—there being marked contrasts, for instance, between centralized systems and decentralized ones—and with the inspector's personal place within a particular system. There are state inspectors, and local inspectors; primary and secondary inspectors; and general inspectors and inspectors of special subjects. Couple these facts with the variety of conditions under which he may

have to work: climatic, geographical (particularly in relation to density of population) sociological and political, and it will be obvious that it is not easy to speak meaningfully or precisely about 'the inspector' and 'his' functions. To take an example from the countries represented in these articles, how would an inspector from France feel if he were called upon to work in the Philippines, and would a New Zealand inspector, favourably inclined to the newer developments in his own country, feel at home if he were suddenly transplanted to France?

Variety in conditions of work, in responsibilities and in the nature of change was an ever-present fact in the Chichester discussions and it is also well illustrated in the four articles presented here. From France we have a description by a liberally minded senior official of the working of the traditional, highly centralized French system, where the impact of change is bringing about a transformation of attitudes rather than an alteration in administrative structure. In the Philippines, on the contrary, developments are concerned with deliberate attempts to break down centralization and encourage a 'grass-roots' policy in education, through the creation of community schools. In these both teachers and supervisors are finding a new freedom by co-operating in the creation of an education suited to the evolving needs of the people. Canadian developments are represented by an account of a

special project for the development of educational leadership designed to assist in raising educational standards throughout the Dominion. Educational leadership through guidance is the theme of our New Zealand article which describes important changes in the functioning of the inspectorate, changes designed to remove what are

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felt to be obstacles to guidance, and to permit a re-definition of its goals. Despite this diversity, there is a common theme running through the articles, a theme which was also dominant at Chichester, and that is the nature of the change which is taking place in the inspector's rôle. Where formerly the emphasis on his work was on authoritarian control, prescription and enforcement, it is now on persuasive leadership, consultation and guidance. Rather than attempt a systematic commentary on the articles themselves, I have therefore chosen to elaborate this common theme, first by drawing special attention to its implications for the relationship between inspectors and teachers—which was the focus of discussion at Chichester—and secondly by indicating the general direction of the various steps which are now being taken to enable inspectors to exercise more fully the kind of leadership which guidance entails.

The Changing Rôle of the Inspectorate

In France, says M. François, 'the idea of the inspector as a bogey-man, a bulwark of the established order, a dreaded judge, hair-splitting and merciless, seems to be dying out'. In the evaluation of the Canadian Project in Educational Leadership, clear evidence was found for 'a trend towards a kind of leadership in which autocratic direction gives way to guidance and more liberal sharing of responsibility'. 'As the function of enforcement becomes less important,' say our New Zealand contributors, 'inspectors are able to move towards a relationship of partnership with teachers'. 'In the Philippines,' declares Mr. Orata, 'there has been a significant tendency towards giving teachers increasing freedom of action.' To grasp the implications of this change in the rôle of the inspector we have, as Professor Joseph Lauwerys stressed in a scholarly and provocative presidential address at Chichester, to look back over educational history. Behind contemporary developments lie the immense social changes of the last few hundred years. Truth, and especially educational truth, can no longer be enshrined in the unchanging propositions of a dogma nor can it be maintained as the monopoly of a learned few. In the more developed countries at any rate, the inspector is no longer necessarily and always a more learned or more gifted man than the teacher he inspects, nor does he normally come from a higher social stratum.

The teaching profession is more and more taking direct responsibility for the ascertainment and maintenance of educational standards. Moreover, challenging conceptions of the meaning of education, the fruit both of pioneer thought throughout educational history and of modern social conditions, are now actively at work in the world, and are taking concrete shape in radically new materials and methods of learning. When some understanding and some control of the forces which shape his life are potentially within the reach of all, an inspector can no longer serve merely by handing on a tradition. He has to become a partner with teachers, parents and children in the task of re-shaping education, but a partner to whom a significant share in leadership has been entrusted.

Is this change from strict control and supervision towards collaboration and guidance one which does or should characterize educational development everywhere? What about the relatively under-developed countries where systems of universal education are only now beginning to be built? Mr. Bull and Mr. Campbell of New Zealand are undoubtedly right to remind us that 'the functions of an inspector of schools are largely determined by the quality of the teaching service within which he works. When teachers . . . are poorly educated and trained, strict supervision of their work is necessary in order to establish standards and raise the level of teaching.' But what does this really mean? Does it mean that the teaching profession in under-developed countries can only be educated to a higher level of educational responsibility if inspectors emphasize their authority and superiority and demand unqualified obedience and respect? To assume that this is the necessary path of development would surely be to deny all that we have discovered about education in recent years. Our whole new attitude in education is centred upon the idea of guidance, upon learning as a collaborative process, in which freedom and mutual respect are essential components in the exercise of a wise authority. There is abundant evidence to show that, as with the individual, so with social and professional groups, a vital factor in their development to maturity and independence is the extent to which they are encouraged to be independent and to take an ever-increasing share of responsibility. It is clear that this principle is well understood by those

responsible for current developments in the educational system of the Philippines. The account of these developments given here fosters the hope that some, at least, of the educational hardships and failures, inevitably encountered by our older civilizations in the course of their development, may be avoided by the new. If this is really to happen and if developments are to continue in our older educational systems themselves, it seems clear that we shall need to consider very carefully some of the deeper issues involved in our changing attitude towards authority.

Obstacles to the Proper Exercise of Guidance

It is now being realized that the transition from authoritarian control to guidance is necessarily a slow process—our New Zealand contributors emphasize this—although dramatic changes in administrative structure and approach, such as those described in the articles from New Zealand and the Philippines, and dynamic projects like the Canadian one, may do much to accelerate it. Yet the faster the apparent progress the sooner are the deeper problems encountered. The growth towards maturity and increased responsibility in the teaching profession inevitably raises the question whether in the fully developed profession which teaching aspires to become, there would, in principle, be any place for inspection at all. Is it really compatible with professional dignity and competence? Inspectors themselves are naturally not as yet inclined to envisage their own disappearance, and the views of the majority of teachers on this point remain a matter of surmise. It may be that the more the teaching profession as a whole is able to accept the inspectorate as representing its own spearhead, the less will become the need for inspectors to act as watch-dogs of the administration. But may we not here be involved in a vicious circle? Can teachers progressively accept inspectors as their own leaders, while in fact they remain the representatives of public authority? The changing interpretation of his function has exposed a central conflict right at the heart of the inspector's rôle. He is now called upon to act as the teacher's counsellor and friend, yet he must still 'inspect'. Can these functions really be successfully combined in one person? Can a teacher really meet as an equal one who in certain important respects has power over him? At Chichester Professor Joseph Lauwerys answered both questions in the

negative and suggested that more and more it will become necessary for the two functions, of guidance on the one hand and administrative control on the other, to become the province of different persons. M. François on the other hand does not appear to doubt that one man may successfully carry through 'the dual rôle'. Here is a profound and fascinating problem.

The conflict arises in one of its most difficult forms in the power which inspectors in many countries exercise over the appointment and promotion of teachers. In New Zealand, for example, the extent to which the inspector has had to function as a 'grading officer' has come to be regarded as an insurmountable psychological barrier to constructive relations between inspectors and teachers. The lucid account of this problem and of the pioneering courage exhibited in its attempted solution which we have been given, might lead us to suppose that the removal or diminution of the inspector's rôle in the matter of the promotion of teachers is everywhere an absolutely necessary condition if he is to carry out his guidance function successfully. But against this, it would appear that in France the power of the inspectorate over the professional lives of teachers is accepted without question, nor is the issue raised in the articles from Canada and the Philippines. Even if this is simply a result of the selective viewpoints from which these articles have had to be written, the discussions at Chichester showed that there is a wide difference of emphasis on the importance of this problem. We may well here be dealing with profound problems of national culture, of differing paths and stages of social and educational evolution, of different philosophies in which freedom and authority appear in quite different guises. Psychologically speaking it would seem that in some countries, the central problem of authority and freedom is felt to lie in the outward and administrative conditions of the relations between inspector and teacher and its solution is accordingly sought there. In others on the contrary, the issue may be felt to be located more within the actual personal relationship itself and its resolution may appear to be primarily a matter of tolerance and management by inspectors and teachers alike of the tensions involved. With our present limited psychological and sociological knowledge, value judgments on these issues are entirely out of place, but the issues themselves

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are certainly worthy of further study. Thus although the problem of resolving the conflict between authority and freedom in the relations of inspectors and teachers is rightly seen to be universal, there does not appear to be any universal solution for it. This may be because the external, i.e., structural, and the internal, i.e., personal, aspects of authority and freedom are subtly linked to one another and may be variously emphasized in different cultures.

The Guidance Relationship

Although the form they take may differ according to the scope and nature of the inspector's responsibilities (for example, whether or not these include power over promotion) the basic problems of guidance, for the inspector who guides and the teacher who receives guidance, are problems of personal relationship. It is on the quality of the relationship he establishes with teachers that success in his vital work of guidance will depend—this vital work comprising, according to Professor Lauwerys, the induction and admission of new entrants to the profession, the raising of standards (through developments in curriculum and methods) and the maintenance of professional morale. The problems of the guidance relationship received much attention at Clichester and formed the main theme of the lectures given by Mrs. Herbert and Miss Hourd.¹ Their point of view was largely psycho-analytic in origin, and of course in form necessarily Anglo-Saxon. The nature of the resulting discussions suggested, however, that they were dealing with universal issues. What these issues are is perhaps best illustrated by a stereotype of the inspection situation which has had and still has wide

currency and which is still close to reality in many cases. This is summed up in the picture of an act of collusion between staff and pupils designed to give a good impression, an effort to put on a good show, which often bears little resemblance to the reality of everyday life in the school. This attempt to impress is often accompanied by both a thinly veiled hostility and a lack of any real respect for the inspector, whose advent is regarded as at best a nuisance and at worst a threat to the work of the school by someone whose capacity to make any real contribution is doubted.

The aim obviously is to replace such a state of affairs by a genuine partnership. On the teacher's side the difficulties spring from two main sources, his essentially double or ambivalent attitude to the inspector as a professionally superior person (irrespective of the latter's real power over him) and his attitude towards any suggested change in his own outlook and methods. The inspector diminishes or exacerbates the tensions arising from these sources according to the sort of person he is and the kind of attitude he adopts. Constructive relations can be established where he can exercise his authority in a persuasive and not an authoritarian manner, when he possesses and may be seen to possess genuine professional competence of a high order, and when his insight and humility are sufficient to enable him to understand, encourage and respect the development of someone whose personality may be quite different, and potentially perhaps richer than his own. It must also never be forgotten that a teacher's relationship with those in authority are apt to be reflected in his relations with his pupils. Where the former are constructive and harmonious, the better the chance that the latter will be also.

The inspector has to realize that teachers both resent him and want him. In this they simply share in the double attitude towards authority which is universally human. They resent him as someone who may injure their self-esteem through criticism or lower their, perhaps hard-won, self-confidence, by pressing them to attempt changes of which they may feel incapable. Or they may resent his interference with a path of development they have already worked out for themselves and which may differ markedly from his. At the same time they also want him. They look for real practical help and advice from

¹ Already printed in *The New Era*, Vol. 36, No. 6, June 1955.

someone whose superior 'know-how' they can respect, and they are ready to receive inspiration and a widening of their vision from someone whose experience they can genuinely feel to be greater and deeper than their own. They want him also to help them to achieve a fuller sense of personal identity, to help them to define themselves more clearly as only an outsider can do. They need him to be someone who really cares about their work, understands it, and whom they can feel is able to sanction their efforts. Briefly the teacher needs the inspector 'to confirm him in his calling' as M. François puts it. From this it is clear that the inspector's rôle is a quasi-parental one, and accordingly his aim must be to encourage each individual teacher in his or her own growth to maturity. In the Canadian project, it is implied that 'the Supervisor serves a teacher best to the extent that he can help him or her to become increasingly self-critical, self-dependent and self-directive.' His problem in the words of the Philippine Joint Congressional Committee on Education is 'how to encourage teachers to depend more and more on their own resources'. Guidance therefore puts heavy demands upon inspectors.

The Development of Educational Leadership

The nature of these demands may tempt us to look for the ideal inspector, but he is as much of a myth as the ideal teacher. Whatever we regard as the essential qualities in an inspector, our practical tasks will always be to secure men and women with potentialities for the particular kind of leadership which guidance requires and to help them to prepare themselves for the actual job. In practice this does not simply mean initial preparation but the opportunity for continuous education and progressive enrichment of experience. How are such opportunities to be secured? The Canadian project shows how realistically the job is being tackled in one large country and our other contributors have important suggestions to offer. The essential requirements of any scheme for developing educational leadership among inspectors or supervisors would appear to be to provide adequate opportunities for:

- (i) keeping abreast with all relevant educational developments;
- (ii) studying concretely the way in which new

principles may be put into practice under different conditions;

- (iii) exercising personal responsibility for some particular aspects of development;
- (iv) co-operating with teachers, particularly head teachers, in the working out of development schemes;
- (v) informing parents and the community in general about new developments, enlisting their support and considering their own suggestions;
- (vi) frequently meeting colleagues engaged in similar work in other areas to discuss common problems and to derive mutual inspiration from an exchange of ideas;
- (vii) increasing their personal insight into their own behaviour in relationships with teachers—in particular with regard to their exercise of authority and their capacity to encourage teachers in the constructive use of professional freedom.

Of course the methods through which such opportunities can be given are bound to vary greatly with circumstances. One point perhaps requires special mention. The maintenance of morale among inspectors is a *sine qua non* if they themselves are to help to maintain the morale of teachers. The morale of a professional group is affected by a great variety of factors. It tends to be high where community morale is high on matters affecting the group, where there is a common driving force, as illustrated by the situation in the Philippines. In each country we have to discover, as one member put it at Chichester, 'what it is that really hurts or moves us all'. Morale also tends to be increased whenever special projects are devised which actively enlist the participation of the group as a group. A sense of partnership and comradeship is in fact one of the most powerful factors in building high morale and in some measure all the requirements listed above aim at breaking down the isolation, psychological even more than physical, in which the inspector has traditionally worked. The Chichester conference showed how great is the need for opportunities to exchange information and explore common problems. Meetings of inspectors among themselves (although not only among themselves) should obviously be encouraged, in every possible way.

Morale is also affected by the degree of personal insight among individuals into the real nature of

the difficulties involved in professional work. It can be increased if these can be discovered and faced in the comradeship of a group. The Chichester conference had several aims but an important one was to afford an opportunity for gaining fresh personal insight. For this reason its organization was unusual. It was designed to give participants some first-hand experience of the relations between authority and freedom in learning by offering them a relatively unstructured programme of free activities in painting, music and discussion. The permissive nature of the agenda was intended to reveal to participants our common human need, which teachers and children share in a high degree for both the authority of a recognizable structure and the freedom of the 'empty canvas', the 'blank agenda', and also our common difficulties in making constructive use of freedom when it is offered to us. In discussion the members at first found considerable difficulty in really accepting the freedom offered—preferring an authoritative list of topics. Direct experience of this difficulty was undoubtedly a valuable experience. In painting and movement it was hoped that partici-

pants might, through a particular kind of guidance, re-discover or discover for the first time unsuspected spontaneities within themselves. There is no doubt that many of them did so.

Any programme for the development of educational leadership must aim at the production of educational statesmen and not of mere technicians as is stressed in our Canadian article. But statesmanship alone is not enough unless it generates in teachers and children the kind of spontaneity which, in words quoted by M. François, can ensure that 'classrooms are not cemeteries, but bubbling springs of life'. The purpose of this introduction has mainly been to suggest that the source of one of the richest of these springs is to be found through the solution of the central problem of guidance, the problem of reconciling authority and freedom. It is to be expected that the solution will take on a unique form in each country, but while administrative changes may be a necessary part of it, it is only in the living relationships between inspectors and teachers that it can be made manifest.

Mr. Morris wishes it to be understood that he is not, and never has been an inspector, and that therefore, lacking any personal experience of this rôle, his comments are those of a general student of education.—Ed.

THE INSPECTION OF SCHOOLS IN FRANCE

By M. Louis François, Inspector-General of Education

MONSIEUR L'INSPECTEUR—an impressive and formidable personage. It was certainly in this light that Napoleon Bonaparte saw him when, in 1802, he set up the *lycées* (grammar or secondary schools) and appointed General Inspectors. 'Armed with the necessary power and dignity to carry out their important mission, they will go from one school to another, visiting each with care, and enlightening the government, for which they will constitute a sort of eye, continually watching over the schools and observing their conditions, their success or their defects. This new institution will be the keystone of educational administration, and will maintain all its parts in a state of constant activity.'

A General Inspector supervises, that is to say, he watches with care and authority. He sees that education is provided on the lines laid down in the curricula, according to the methods prescribed by the instructions. In his book on education, Alain defines the inspector brutally as a 'policeman who comes to make sure that the

teacher has prepared his lesson'. He inspires fear in the teacher just as a policeman frightens children. 'He knew only too well the terror aroused by inspectors, those rocks in the way of the promotion of the civil servant. He knew only too well that this terror is not dulled by age.' Thus a novelist, who is also a teacher, writes in his book *Des hommes qu'on livre aux enfants* ('Men Delivered over to Children').

Nevertheless this type of Inspector, or rather this idea of the inspector as a bogey-man, a bulwark of the established order, a dreaded judge, hair-splitting and merciless, seems to be dying out. Indeed the latest novel describing educational circles, *Le naïf aux quarante enfants* ('The Innocent with the forty children') by Paul Guth, has a curious chapter entitled *Deux chaises* ('Two chairs'). 'In every grammar school in France the appearance of two chairs heralds the entry of the ideal couple: the General-Inspector and the Headmaster. In Rome a *lictor* carried *fascēs* before the magistrates. In all the schools of France, before the representatives of authority

janitors carry chairs.’ The master confesses: ‘Every organ in my body twisted itself into knots. I was a man in mortal danger.’ But the inspector is intelligent and friendly; the master recovers some of his assurance, and even feels a certain pleasurable excitement in this unusual presence: ‘It seems that a General-Inspector often gives himself *blasé* airs in the classroom. But this one was quivering with curiosity. His eyes darted everywhere, from teacher to pupils, to the blackboard, to the walls . . . His remarks had eased the tension. The blood began to flow again in the pupils’ veins, and in mine too.’ By the end of the lesson the atmosphere had changed—it was positively brilliant. ‘The result was a joyous headlong rush, a seething excitement, in which desire to please bordered on familiarity.’ In the course of the confessional which follows the lesson, the inspector reveals himself as a veritable revolutionary: ‘Classes are not cemeteries, but bubbling springs of life . . . The tragedy of *Phèdre* is a blazing fire of passion. It cannot be helped if it sets fire to the *lycée*! . . . You are one of the most dynamic elements in this school. The University should expect its methods to be renewed by such young teachers as you.’

It would seem that though the teacher always awaits the advent of the inspector with a certain apprehension, and though he has to disguise at least a fleeting feeling of anxiety and even of panic when he receives him in his classroom, he is glad of this visit later and remembers it with

excitement and almost with pleasure. The inspector’s visit has confirmed him in his calling, while opening up to him at the same time new vistas of initiative and of work. It is true that the inspector should be feared; but his visit should also be desired. He should be both liked and respected. Whether this is the case or not depends entirely on the man who is appointed and the way in which he carries out his task.

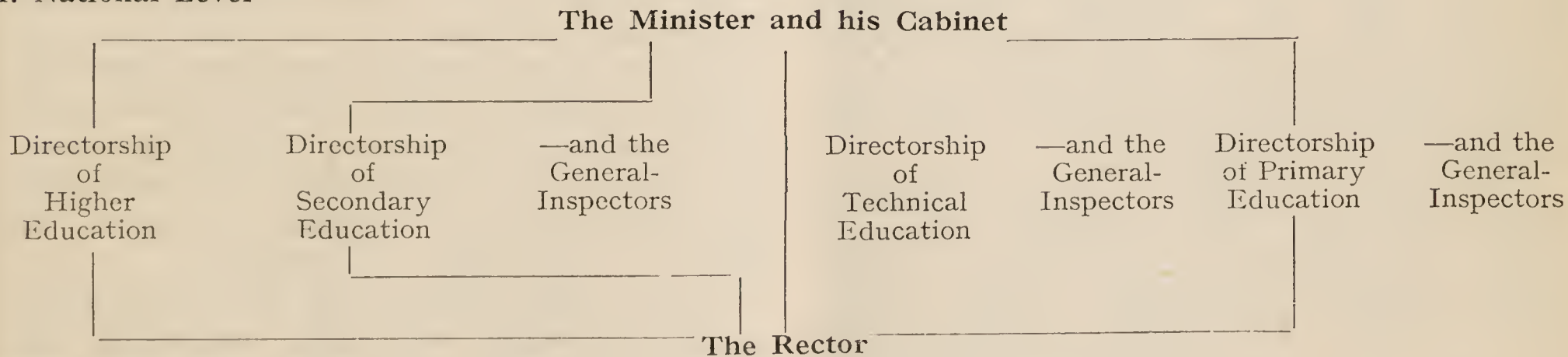
I. The French Education System

If we are to understand the position and duties of inspectors in France, we must recall the principles and also the already existing conditions which have given the French educational system its present form. It is not necessary to speak of all these conditions or principles, only of those that concern our particular subject.

(1) *France is a very centralized country.* Everything originates in the Ministry of Education and everything comes back to it. There are regional institutions: rectorships for a certain number of departments grouped as an Academy, and academic inspectorships for each of the departments. But these are executive organs for carrying out instructions from above, and transmitting organs in the opposite direction. It is the Ministry which appoints teachers, decides on their promotion and their transfer. It is the Ministry which lays down the curricula and teaching methods.

THE PLACE OF INSPECTORS IN FRENCH EDUCATION

I. National Level



II. Provincial Level
16 Academies in Metropolitan France, plus 1 in Algeria

III. Departmental Level
89 Departments in Metropolitan France, Plus 3 in Algeria
4 in overseas territories

The Departmental Inspector
Primary School Inspectors

(2) *Education is a national institution, but this national institution does not have the monopoly of education in France.* Side by side with the schools set up by the State, the departments and the *communes*, and functioning at their expense, there are private and non-governmental establishments, set up and financed by individuals, or religious and professional groups. On the whole, the State does not finance private institutions and therefore does not control them. Government schools account for four-fifths of primary school pupils, three-fifths of secondary school and technical school pupils, and nine-tenths of University students.

(3) *All State educational institutions are completely neutral where religion is concerned.* Religious instruction may be given to the pupils, but this must be done off the school premises. In the State schools there is consequently no inspection of religious instruction nor of those who give it.

(4) *The various levels of education (primary, secondary, technical and higher education) are very much cut off from one another.* Each one of them developed as a separate and closed system of education, and now they exist side by side, rather than as successive stages. The primary school has been prolonged by the development of an upper primary school which competes with the secondary school. Secondary schools have set up their own primary classes and thus keep their own pupils from the beginning right through the *baccalaureate*, to the preparatory classes for the *Grandes Ecoles*, which in turn lie outside the system of higher education. Technical schools are quite distinct both from secondary schools and Universities. This vertical anarchy will have to be replaced, some day in the near future, by a system organized horizontally, that is to say with successive levels of education.

(5) *Secondary education includes a number of distinct branches:* letters, modern languages, history and geography, natural sciences, mathematics, physics and chemistry, drawing, music, physical culture. Each of these branches has its own group of specialized teachers. For secondary teaching in France is characterized by a high level of culture. To teach a subject well, it is not enough to be a skilled and gifted teacher. It requires a thorough knowledge and training that are constantly being improved and revived.

II. The Status of Inspectors

In France we find inspectors at two very different levels: *primary inspectors*, very close to the level of the teachers themselves, and working within the restricted administrative unit of the *canton* (each department is divided into *arrondissements*, each *arrondissement* into *cantons*, and each *canton* into *communes*); and the *General-Inspector of Education*, whose place is in the Ministry of Education and whose sphere of action covers the whole of France and even the overseas territories, although these are autonomous and have their own educational systems. In the scale of salaries, the General-Inspector is at the very top and the primary inspector half-way down.

SALARY SCALE OF CIVIL SERVANTS IN PUBLIC EDUCATION

(Maximum salaries reached at close of career stated in thousands of francs: 1,000 francs equals approximately one pound sterling.)

800—Director General of Education.

750—General Inspector of Education—Rector.

700—

650—

630—Departmental Inspector—Secondary school teacher with degree of *agrégé*:

600—

550—Primary school inspector in Paris—Secondary school or Technical school teacher (without degree of *agrégé*).

525—Primary school inspector (provinces).

500—

450—

430—Headmaster or Headmistress of primary school.

410—Teachers of both sexes.

300—

200—

100—

The General-Inspectors belong to different levels of education. We must distinguish between the General-Inspectors of primary education who inspect the *Ecoles normales* or training schools for primary teachers of both sexes in each department; the General-Inspectors of technical schools; and those of secondary schools. The latter are specialized: there are inspectors of letters, of history and geography, of mathematics, etc.

On the other hand, there are no General-Inspectors of higher education. University professors and lecturers are chosen by their colleagues, their appointment by the Ministry only confirms this choice. Moreover the Universities are jealous of their autonomy and admit no supervision.

The inspection of schools is a part of the duties of *Rectors* and *Inspecteurs d'Académie* (Departmental Inspectors) who must also give each

teacher an official mark, taking into account his zeal, his punctuality, the discipline he commands and his devotion to duty. But these two officials are first and foremost administrative heads, the *Rector* for the province, the Departmental Inspector for the department. Most of their time is taken up with administrative routine and their various representational obligations.

Mayors and municipal councillors can also inspect schools in their towns, in so far as the town's money has contributed to the building and upkeep of the school. But this inspection is limited to the state of the premises (solidity, cleanliness, hygiene) and cannot cover the teaching, for the teachers are appointed and paid by the State and are responsible only to the inspectors of Public schools, who are civil servants.

The State has the right to exercise a certain control over private educational institutions. The Departmental Inspector or the primary school inspector may make sure that the rules of hygiene are observed on the school premises, and that law and morality are respected. But in practice this right usually remains a dead letter.

In this centralized country, all inspectors are appointed by the Minister, but by two very different methods: primary inspectors are appointed on the results of a competitive examination, while General-Inspectors are co-opted. Any teacher of either sex who has ten years of teaching experience, or any teacher with a University degree and five years of teaching experience, can enter for the primary inspectors' examinations held each year and which include papers on general culture, teaching methods and educational administrative law. Before taking up their duties, the new primary inspectors of both sexes spend a preparatory year of specialization in the Teachers' Training Colleges of Saint-Cloud and Fontenay. It is thus possible to become a primary inspector quite early, around the age of thirty. To become a General-Inspector, however, represents the culmination of a long educational career. It occurs usually between the ages of fifty and sixty, the retiring age for inspectors being 70 years. For example, when a vacancy occurs in the ranks of the General-Inspectors of Secondary Schools (Letters Division) the other inspectors in this division meet to discuss the comparative merits of various teachers of these subjects, who are usually chosen from those who prepare pupils for the *Ecole Normale*

Supérieure, on account of their particularly high reputation. They agree amongst themselves on the most outstanding candidate, whom they then put forward for appointment by the Minister.¹

Thus Inspectors are safe from arbitrary appointments or favouritism on the part of the authorities. The most able and deserving are in fact appointed. The prestige of General-Inspectors is safeguarded by the system of co-option and that of primary inspectors by competitive examination.

III. The Duties of Inspectors

To watch the career of every member of the vast army of teachers (225,000 at all the various levels) and to ensure constant improvement in the work of a teaching body whose very size tends to paralyse it, are the two fundamental tasks of both primary school inspectors and General-Inspectors. Their sphere of action is distinct, however, and consequently their methods also differ. For this reason we will deal with them separately.

(1) *Primary School Inspectors*

The primary school inspector visits schools in the district to which he has been appointed, sits in the class-room during the lessons and writes two kinds of reports: one on the school, in which he notes down the state of the equipment, the organization of classes and lessons, the results obtained and any desirable improvements; secondly, he writes individual reports on the teachers in which he gives his opinion of their work. Later, these individual reports will be sent to the teachers concerned for their information, before being returned signed by them to the Departmental Inspector who keeps all the records. The primary school inspector evaluates each teacher professionally and gives him a mark, on the basis of which, at a meeting of the Departmental Commission, presided over by the *Departmental Inspector*, and at which he is also present, the annual promotions and transfers are decided. He may propose sanctions, rewards or disciplinary penalties which are then put into effect by the *Departmental Inspector*.

The primary school inspector also supervises school attendance, encourages the creation of school funds to help indigent children, organizes canteens and holiday camps. He can suggest the

¹ Women may become primary inspectors, but it is rare for them to become General-Inspectors. Inspectors, whether male or female, supervise the work of teachers of both sexes.

setting up or the building of governmental schools. Every year he organizes an educational conference for the teachers of his *canton*.

Lastly, he gives advice on the opening of private schools and may inspect them if circumstances require.

(2) *General-Inspectors*

I hope I shall be forgiven if, in order to explain the duties of a General-Inspector, I take an example which while it has the defect of being a personal one, has at least the advantage of being concrete and authentic.

At the beginning of October, my colleagues and I divide up the whole of France into zones, each taking a different one every year. When I go to a *lycée* or a college to inspect the work of the teachers of history and geography, I am not content merely to be present during a certain number of lessons, however interesting this group of young pupils may be, and this young adult striving to solve in his own way a given problem in the teaching of geography and history. Nor am I satisfied later, when I have interviewed all the teachers one by one in the headmaster's study, wounding their pride in some cases, flattering their vanity in others, and finally committing my observations to paper in reports that will go to swell the official files. I call all the teachers of history and geography together to discuss with them ways of improving their material conditions (arrangement of class-rooms, collections of maps and photographs, lantern-slide and film projectors, libraries, etc.) and ways of varying and enriching their teaching methods. I also go over the school from top to bottom, enquire into the state of its discipline, the existence of clubs, of sporting and cultural activities, of libraries, investigate its boarding establishment, and, in a word, the whole social life of this educational community. I discuss with all the teachers the special problems of their own school or those of education in general. I often make contact with the President of the Parents' Association, as well as with the Mayor and the Prefect. Lastly, I write a general report on the *lycée* and individual ones on those who are in charge of it.

In this way, the days begin early and end late, being very full of a variety of occupations.

In Paris, the General-Inspector must concern himself with the careers of individual teachers,

sitting on committees which reward some of them by granting them a promotion with a wide choice (after three years) or with a narrower choice (after four years) and a transfer to a more important town, while penalizing others by granting them only long-service promotion (after five years) and sending them to little coveted posts.

It is the duty of the General-Inspectors to draw up new curricula or to remodel the old ones, to write new instructions for teachers or to modify former ones. They must also direct courses of study designed to improve the knowledge or the educational methods of teachers.

They preside or 'vice-preside' the juries which recruit teachers by competitive examination, and almost all of June and July and part of August of each year are spent in this essential work.

Lastly, they must carry out all the supplementary tasks entrusted to them by the Ministry of Education: special inspections to enquire into difficult situations, the examination of books to be bought for school libraries and of films that can be recommended for schools, participation in the work of the French National Commission for Unesco, etc.

The variety of the inspector's duties keeps his heart young and his mind alert.

IV. The Inspector's Mission

'The professional supervisor is stupid and ignorant. There is no exception to this rule.' This maxim of the philosopher Alain, makes one wonder anxiously about one's own profession of Inspector of Public Education. It is true that if one were to accept the definition given by Napoleon in 1802 one would do well to give up being an inspector and return to teaching. In 1792, Romme, a revolutionary, in drawing up the plans for the future French National Education, declared: 'Public education must be safe-guarded by a protective supervision which acts as a stimulus rather than as a constraint.'

Seen in this light, the inspection of schools takes on a new intellectual and human value. The inspector is no longer merely the dreaded personage who praises or blames, supervises and criticizes. He is also the teachers' guide, advising them and enriching them from the fund of his own experience, and this prevents him from becoming 'stupid'. He might even be called the teachers' teacher; he must be as capable of

judging the content of a lesson as its form; he must therefore go on reading and learning, keeping in touch with new developments in his subject, and this prevents him from becoming 'ignorant'. Lastly, he is the supporter and even the protector of teachers, ensuring that they obtain justice and that they can exercise their profession with an independent mind. The inspector embodies French public education, which has the miraculous advantage of being entirely free because it depends on the State; that is to say it is free of political, religious and social pressure of various kinds because the State is free and secular.

In these circumstances it is easy to understand the importance of the choice of inspectors. The only factors that should be taken into account are ability and personal qualities.

The qualities required of a good inspector are indeed numerous: good health, for he must travel

in all weathers and be able to bear a heavy load of work without weakening; curiosity and youthfulness of character, if he is to remain always as interested and as friendly towards all these teachers that come and go day after day; a very sure judgment, because the lives of a certain number of human beings depend on it; kindness in giving encouragement, or at least avoiding discouragement, but also severity in condemning laziness, mere routine and mediocrity; eloquence too, since the inspector must call meetings of teachers, speak to them, convince them, inspire them with a desire for work and achievement; lastly, and above all, the profound knowledge and irreproachable conduct which ensure consideration and respect.

The Inspector is a guide and a leader; in everything he must set an example.

Such men are difficult to find. Let us not make the mistake of appointing too many inspectors.

LEADERSHIP IN PHILIPPINE COMMUNITY SCHOOLS

Dr. Pedro T. Orata

I. Background: Educational Reform

THE Philippine educational system is still highly centralized, although there has recently been a significant tendency to give teachers and local school officials increasing freedom of action and participation in the formulation of school policies, in developing better curricula, and in experimenting with new methods of teaching and administration. The system is headed by a Secretary of Education who is a member of the President's cabinet. Under him are the directors of public and private schools, who are responsible for the control and supervision of over twenty-seven thousand schools and more than one hundred thousand teachers in fifty-two provinces.

The system started in 1898 with an enrolment of 6,900 pupils. At the present time the enrolment in all types of schools is nearly four and a half million. Whereas at the beginning of this century only one in every 1,500 inhabitants was privileged to go to school, at the present time, one out of every five of the twenty-one million population goes to one school or another. While half of the children of school age the world over have no access to any kind of school and are, therefore,

doomed to illiteracy, there exists at present in the Philippines a universal system of education which caters for all children of school age without discrimination of sex, race, economic and social status, religion, or any other factor.

While there is much room for improvement in the quality of education being offered in these schools, still, considering the very short period of fifty years that the system has operated, there is ground for optimism of the future. In the words of Dr. Matta Akrawi, Unesco Deputy Director of Education, the Philippine educational system to-day is characterized by the following features: 'In approach, democratic; in scope, universal; and in content, increasingly becoming relevant to the needs and problems of the Filipino people to-day.' And, it might be added: in leadership, young and aggressive.

This leadership finds expression in many school divisions—Iloilo, Cagayan, Bulacan, Cebu, Bataan, Pangasinan, as far out as Palawan and Batanes, and in many others. This leadership has developed as a result of a new concept of education which, starting soon after the war, has gained momentum until to-day, when it has become a national policy. Writing in a prefatory

note to Laya's *Little Democracies*, which describes the operation of community schools in the province of Bataan, Dr. Willis P. Porter, former Fulbright Professor of Education in the Philippine Normal College, said: (5:v)¹.

'The story of *Little Democracies* is the story of the Community School in action. It is a record of achievement in one province where the schools concentrated on developing a programme designed to raise the hopes and aspirations of the people. This story of Bataan is more than a record of nine months' achievement in one province. It is a symptomatic expression of the hopes and desires of many people throughout the nation. It is the record of the daring spirit of a youthful Division Superintendent of Schools and a loyal group of professional workers. It is the story of old men and women and young boys and girls finding satisfaction in working co-operatively to improve their own mode of living. It is a record of what can be accomplished when latent forces are unleashed and given freedom of expression. It is the record of a beginning, a point well made by the author in his prefatory statement. More than anything else, it is a record of democracy in action at the grass-roots, the *cogon*, level'.

To appreciate this democratic approach to education, it would be necessary to compare it with methods used before the war. At that time, courses of study and text-books were prescribed and intended to be followed more or less strictly. As a young superintendent of schools in the thirties, this writer and a few others found ways and means to circumvent bureaucratic regulations by not asking for the required permission to depart from well established procedures if they thought it desirable to do so, until called to order by the Director of Education. As luck would have it, in nearly every case of violation of regulations it was possible for this writer to answer back by quoting favourable comments by General Office supervisors, who observed the work being done under favourable conditions and who saw in it possibilities for other schools. As a rule, the Director of Education's reply would be as follows: 'Notwithstanding the comments of General Office Supervisors, attention is invited to Section 126 of the Service Manual and to Circular No. 64, s. 1930.' This meant 'obey or get out'.

The situation at the present time is entirely different. Since 1950, such statements as the

following have been issued by the Director of Public Schools (General Memorandum No. 51, s. 1950):

While in the past it was customary for the field to wait for the General Office to issue instructions on matters taken up at the (superintendents') convention, it is believed that, insofar as the implementation of the programme herein indicated is concerned, the time is ripe for the superintendents themselves to exercise leadership and initiative.

Since leadership is not confined only to the superintendents' level, it is expected that supervisors, principals, and classroom teachers will exercise the same leadership as opportunities arise or as situations demand . . .

The superintendents, supervisors, principals, and teachers should feel free to initiate curriculum study and development to meet local needs and problems.

Why the change in policy? A number of factors have operated among which are the following. Immediately after the liberation of the Philippines (1945-46) from Japan, the Department of Public Instruction, as it was called before the war, was reorganized. The Bureau of Education was abolished and in its place, a number of functional divisions were established. Of these, the Curriculum and Research Division, was to study the old, and develop a more functional and valid, curriculum for the public schools. This Division organized a working-group seminar among its members, to which were invited the staffs of other divisions and public school people in Manila and the provinces, in order to discuss such basic questions as: What should be the aims of education in a free society? What are the characteristics of a good school? What is the relationship between the school and the teacher, on the one hand, and the community, on the other? The outcome of the discussion, which lasted for over a year, was a proposal that henceforth the school and the teacher should assume a double rôle, namely: to educate children and youth for life in a democratic society and to improve home and community life. As a result of the discussion a teacher's Handbook was prepared entitled: *Teaching the Ways of Democracy*. (12b.)

Then, in 1947, a Joint Congressional Committee on Education was appointed to study the present educational system and to offer the Congress of the Philippines recommendations for its improvement. The Committee, consisting of three senators and seven congressmen, appointed a Board of Consultants of nine educators who, working with a technical staff, went to the people, through hundreds of open forums in all provinces

¹ The figures in parenthesis () refer to the source in the Bibliography.

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and regions of the country, in order to get their views on the shortcomings of the educational system and their suggestions for improving it. The report of the committee includes recommendations, some of which have already been carried out, on all aspects and levels of education. Among the highlights of the reports are: first, a new concept of educational leadership, and second, a re-definition of the objectives of Philippine education.

On education leadership, the report says in part: (11: 94.)

The facts about schools, communities, and learning mean nothing at all except in relation to needs. As needs they will remain unsatisfied without educational leadership of a high order . . . The greatest problems among school administrators, to distinguish them from educational leaders, are how and where to get more money to run the schools, to put more students in school and keep them there until they graduate, to provide them with adequate classrooms and library facilities, to pay the teachers higher salaries, to eliminate red tape in requisitioning supplies, to find time to visit all schools or classes during the month or year, to avoid friction and promote better relations with parents and community leaders, and to sell the building programme to the provincial board, municipal council, or Congress. To them, it is a problem of funds first, last and always. The form takes priority over the substance.

On the other hand, the greatest concern of educational

leaders is how to spend wisely what little money there is available, considering the educational needs of the learners, without neglecting the job of finding other sources of income; how to improve the curriculum of the school so that it will result in the students' acquiring better habits of work and of living with others; what should be done to make the teacher's work lighter because it is more enjoyable and is rendered under better and more wholesome conditions; how to encourage teachers to depend more and more upon their own resources because they are given wider participation in policy-making and curriculum development; and how to lead the parents and the students to co-operate with the teachers in providing and utilizing worthwhile educational experiences and in undertaking activities which will redound to the improvement of living standards of all the people . . .

The real educator's success is measured by the positive difference he makes in the school and community, in much the same way that the success of the school will be measured by the difference its presence makes in the way the people live and work together.

On the objectives of education, the Committee proposed: (11: 133.)

Primary grades: 'Proposal No. 9: Assumption by the educational system of the responsibility for leadership in community improvement involving functional literacy, worthwhile recreation, home beautification, community sanitation, and increased agricultural and industrial production, not only as ends in themselves but also as means for implementing more concretely instruction in the classroom; and, to carry out the programme, the inclusion of community extension service as a part of the teacher's regular duties. . . ,

Secondary schools 'Proposal No. 10: Let it be established as a policy that the high school will justify itself, first, by its success in preparing the young people for life in the present and foreseeable future; second by the difference that it makes in the standards of living of the people in the community in which it is located; and third, by the successful effort to teach the youth the ways of democracy.'

Then, in 1951, in connexion with the Golden Jubilee of the Philippine Educational System, there gathered in Manila an Educators' Congress, the biggest and most representative conference in education ever held in the Philippines. In the roster of delegates were 29 associations, 85 government entities and public school divisions, and 131 private colleges and universities. The Congress, among other things, considered the problems of the educational system, particularly those pertaining to how education in the Philippines may broaden the application and continue implementing effectively the principles of freedom in Philippine social life. For the first time, public and private educators and representative laymen from all walks of life and business and the professions, met together to assess the achievements of the educational system and to make recommendations for its improvement. The Congress proposed with unanimity 'to make the community school and its community-improvement programme the hub of the educational machinery that should be given more government and lay support'. (15: 240.)

All these developments meant a change in the concept of educational leadership which presupposed greater and wider participation by teachers, parents, and other lay persons in the determination of educational policies, in planning educational programmes, in developing teaching materials and in utilizing community resources.

Meanwhile, educational pioneering along these lines was making headway in two provinces: in Bohol, where Gerardo Flores, as superintendent of schools, started for the first time to implement the principles of community education which were discussed at the working seminars of the Curriculum and Research Division of the Department of Instruction and Public Information in 1945-46 and later reported encouraging results; and in Iloilo, where Jose V. Aguilar, also superintendent of schools, started his experiments on the use of the vernacular in the first two grades of the primary school as the medium of instruction in place of English, and made excellent beginnings

on relating the school curriculum to community improvement. These were followed shortly by similar ventures in other provinces, notably: in Bataan, under Juan C. Laya; in Bulacan, under Vitaliano Bernardino; in Pangasinan, under Federico Piedad; in Cagayan, under Miguel B. Gaffud; in Cebu, under Pedro G. Guiang; in Laguna, under Roman Lorenzo; in Camarines Sur, under Ricardo Castro; not to mention others.

How this new concept of leadership has since been applied is an exciting story of which it is possible only to indicate briefly the high spots, leaving to the reader the pleasure of finding out more for himself by consulting the bibliography.

II. The New Rôle of School Superintendents

Before the war, division superintendents served in the capacity of sub-lieutenants to the Director of Education who gave them orders and instructions to follow. As a result of the new policy, division superintendents became educational leaders in their respective provinces, and served in an advisory capacity the Director of Public Schools. It was in the summer of 1949 that the Director of Public Schools encouraged the Philippine Association of School Superintendents (PASS) to plan the superintendents' convention that year. Heretofore, the convention, an annual affair, was planned in the General Office and presided over by the Director of Education (which was the designation of the head of the public school system before the war). The superintendents through their Association planned their own yearbook and appointed their own committees, and in 1950, for the first time, they took charge of the convention completely, the Director and his staff being invited to speak and attend the sessions as observers. Starting in 1950, the annual convention of division superintendents, meeting in Baguio, determined the overall programme of the public schools. Each year, they appointed committees to plan the programme for submission to the convention. The following served as the themes of the conventions around which the programme of the public schools revolved: (10.)

- 1950 Education in Rural Areas for Better Living
- 1951 Adult Education: Economic, Cultural-Social, Citizenship-Civic, and Health and Sanitation

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1955 Evaluating the Community School Programme

Each theme is split into its component areas, and a committee is appointed for each area consisting of ten or more members, to study the problem during the year preceding the convention, to prepare a report on it, and later on to submit a report to the convention for discussion and incorporation into a total report. The 1950 theme: *Education for Better Living in Rural Areas*, was accordingly broken up into the following sub-problems: (12: i.)

1. Gearing the curriculum to rural education
2. Problems and conditions of learning in rural education
3. The organization and operation of the community-centered school
4. The high school and its responsibilities in rural areas
5. Agricultural and trade and industrial education in rural areas (including occupational information and guidance, and the relation of home industries to rural economy)
6. Adult education in rural areas
7. Teacher education for rural areas
8. Financing rural education

Little Democracies of Bataan. It is left to each division to implement the theme as developed at the superintendent's convention. In the province of Bataan, the superintendent of schools, Mr. Juan C. Laya, and his teachers and supervisors, in close co-operation with the parents and other laymen, professional and business groups and the pupils of the elementary and high schools, studied their needs, planned their own programme, and went ahead with it, utilizing their own resources in material and manpower and later on evaluating the results of their own efforts against the objectives which they formulated. The manner in which the work was done is briefly as follows: (5.)

The school community is divided into zones, sections, or *puroks*, as they were called in Bataan. It is a neighbourhood organization composed usually of 20 to 50 families. Each *purok* is under the advisership of a teacher. It has a set of elected officers, and it functions

as a unit of closely co-operating neighbours, studying their needs and promoting their welfare. It operates democratically. The *purok* organize themselves into a body. The body plots the course and objectives, and decides what line of action each member should take to achieve the goals—which may be the construction of an irrigation dike, the eradication of the breeding places of mosquitoes, or organizing the town fiesta. They select as officers men and women who could serve as their leaders as well as their helpers, and they all particularly get together to confer, make decisions, and run the affairs of the *purok*.

Each *purok* is organized for self-help among its members. The members rely on their own efforts to achieve benefits for themselves. In the words of Mr. Laya: 'They wish to live in clean communities; they clean up the communities themselves. They wish to have playgrounds for their leisure hours; they fill the low places and set up the volley-ball and basketball themselves. They wish their neighbours to earn more; they help these to do embroidery or plant fruit trees or set up a backyard poultry or piggery'.

Relating the School Subjects to Community Activities. The curriculum of the community school has two parts which are closely integrated; the school subjects—arithmetic, reading and language, writing, social studies and civics, music, etc.—and community activities. In theory, the first part consists of bodies of knowledge, skills, and principles of operations; the second part, of the application of these to the affairs of daily living. Usually the first part is taken up in the classroom in the usual manner, taking care, however, that the tie-up with practical activities outside in the school yard and garden, in the homes and in the community generally is made. Such a tie-up is shown in the following outline of a lesson in Social Studies in Grades III-IV in a village school in the province of Pangasinan:¹

Aims:

- (1) To encourage pupils to increase food production by raising poultry and growing vegetables
- (2) To give them the opportunity of learning, by reading and observation, about projects undertaken by others

Guide Questions:

- (1) What have you done to make your home clean and beautiful? Why should you clean and beautify your yards and homes?
- (2) Do you eat eggs for breakfast? What should you do always to have an ample supply of eggs for your family? Have you seen Mrs. Enguito's project?

Field Trip:

- (1) The class visited Mrs. Enguito's duck

project. They saw her fence, her clean hygienic duck-house, the water pool she had made for the ducks, the number of eggs her ducks had laid a day.

- (2) They saw how Mrs. Enguito had canalized the water flowing outside her house into a pool for the ducks to swim in. (The canal was dug by Mrs. Enguito's son, Pablo Junior, who was in Grade VI at the time.)

Discussion and Application:

- (1) The following day, the class discussed the project and how they could, if they wished, set up a similar one in their own homes.
- (2) Later on during the year, as many as were willing to take up duck raising as their project were given further encouragement and guidance in which case Mrs. Enguito served as the 'expert' in duck raising, since the teacher was not.

It is not possible, for lack of space, to describe the hundreds of other activities, workshops and conferences, trips and excursions, study and working group meetings of teachers, principals, supervisors, students, parents, laymen, and professional and business people which are going on all the time in all school communities throughout the Philippines. During his home leave last year, this writer took part in a number of these activities. In one of these, the high school students took up the matter of preparing for the Christ the King Festival in the town of Urdaneta, in the province of Pangasinan. The town Mayor, Mr. Manuel Sison, presided, and told the group that their help was needed to put the town square and the environment of the church and the whole community into condition fit to receive thousands of visitors from five provinces. What did they think should be done and who were to do it? The students, proceeding methodically as if they were in a class in biology or algebra, enumerated the problems and indicated what should be done to solve them. Finally, they volunteered to do the work themselves, and for three days they took turns to do the cleaning, digging, and decorating that was necessary. A similar conference was held with the elementary school group, and they too volunteered to do their part. In the various classes, especially in civics, character training, home economics, and even in literature and science classes, the subject of what to do to put the *poblacion* (town) into condition fit to be host on Christ the King Festival

¹ *Fundamental Education: A Quarterly Bulletin*, Oct., 1951, p. 105-11.

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was taken up and related to the subject matter of each course. Instead of attending classes in physical education and vocational training, except for necessary chores, the students worked in the community to make it cleaner and more beautiful for the occasion.

It should be clear from what has been said that, since no two communities are alike, no set of rules and regulations or even curriculum, however good they may be for one community, is good enough for other communities. The rules and the curriculum must be tailor-made to suit local conditions. The success of a community school programme must depend upon the leaders who, in the first instance, are the teachers. Gradually, as lay leadership is trained and is willing to take over, the teachers withdraw and act as consultants and advisers mainly. In return for their effort to help the community, the teachers are helped by the people who at times may wish and be able to take charge of activities normally carried on by the teachers such, for instance, getting the best cook among the old women in the village to demonstrate native recipes in homemaking classes, showing how to make slippers from native weeds by one of the men in the community whose

occupation is slipper-making, or telling stories of long ago by an old man who has an aptitude for story-telling, or guiding the pupils to do a folk dance by one in the community who knows it well. It is not all work and no play for the teacher. There is work for everybody if the teacher is resourceful enough to discover native talent and put it to work to relieve him of a job that he cannot do so well, so that he may have more time for doing the sort of work which no other in the community is able to start as well as he can.

The Rôle of the Central Office. It must not be inferred from what has been said that the General Office of the Bureau of Public Schools, not to mention the Department of Education, have relinquished all their powers to the field. The educational system is still very much centralized. The appointment of teachers and the higher echelons of the educational service still remains the prerogative of the Secretary of Education and the Director of Public Schools. However, in matters of the curriculum and methods of instruction and supervision, the field staff have great freedom. The Central Office no longer dictates what is to be taught and how it is to be

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taught. It suggests ways of developing better curricula; it organizes workshops and provides expert advice in different fields; it offers suggestions concerning sources that may be tapped; it calls attention to publications from abroad which may be useful to teachers. The Central Office is gradually becoming a clearing house of educational information instead of the all powerful bureau that it used to be.

For such a revolutionary change from the subject-centred and highly centralized system of education to a community-centred one, there is bound to be criticism both from the inside and out. Teachers are already overworked, why burden them with further duties which should be the work of other departments anyhow? What about the fundamentals of learning, the time-honoured three R's, geography, science, character training, health, and the like—are they not bound to be neglected? These criticisms are well taken, and steps are gradually being taken to make certain that the education of the child is not neglected and that the teachers are compensated for their extra efforts.

The fact is that there is no more attractive profession in the Philippines to-day than teaching. Twice since the war salaries have been increased and the rates are now in conformity with the cost of living index. The Philippines is to-day in the unusual position of having a supply of certificated teachers in excess of the demand for replacement and extension classes. As one teacher put it: 'This is my twenty-fifth year as a teacher. The first twenty were the first year multiplied twenty times, when I taught identical subjects in practically the same way to similar groups and ages of pupils. I tell you, I watched the clock and was so tired after school that I had no energy left for

correcting papers and preparing lesson plans at night. But during the last four years no two days have been alike. It is true I still teach the same subjects, but with an entirely new purpose—the use to be made of them by the pupils. I can see the value of my work in the changes taking place in the community—cleaner, more sanitary, happier, more productive. I now prepare my teaching materials to suit the needs of my classes and teach them with a view to meeting those needs, whereas before I was always in fear of the supervisor's telling me to do better without showing me how. I may be working harder, but I am happier and feel better rewarded.'

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A CANADIAN EXPERIMENT IN EDUCATION FOR SUPERVISION AND ADMINISTRATION

Dr. George E. Flower

SOME thirty years ago much of the work of a Canadian inspector of schools was indeed 'inspection' in a narrow sense. He was required to pay a brief annual visit to each school in his inspectorate. Frequently in this limited time all he could do was to satisfy himself that the school was actually in session, make a quick inspection of buildings and grounds, examine the school registers, and listen to part of a lesson or ask the pupils a few questions to determine whether the school was being satisfactorily 'kept'. It was to be hoped that there would be time for a word of advice for the teacher; but, as an official in the employ of a grant-paying provincial government, the inspector's primary duty was to see that the course of studies was being followed and the school law and regulations observed. Many are the stories of inspection under these circumstances. 'When the inspector comes,' one of our teachers used to tell us, when I was at school, 'I want all of you to raise your hand to every question I ask. If you know the answer, raise your right hand. If you don't, raise your left, and I'll know not to ask you.'

Inspection in this narrow sense still remains a necessary part of the duties of the Canadian school inspector, or superintendent as he is now called in some provinces. Constitutionally, each of the ten provincial governments is responsible for education in the particular province, although each has delegated much responsibility for the actual operation of schools to local school authorities. On the average some two-fifths of the cost of running local school systems is contributed by the provinces, and provincial legislatures want to be assured—largely through inspectors or superintendents—that these funds are being properly spent. But to-day the great majority of teachers are professionally trained, and many tiny school districts have been grouped into larger school areas under a single local school board. This being so, the *service* which the inspector can render has come to be his predominant concern, rather than the mere auditing or review of school functioning. Supervision is still concerned with the quality of instruction, but the inspector now tends to go about his work

by helping principals, teachers and others uncover weaknesses, which he then assists them to find ways of overcoming. This new kind of leadership implies that the supervisor serves a teacher best to the extent that he can help him or her to become increasingly self-critical, self-dependent, and self-directive. It implies fostering widespread public interest and concern, as well as co-ordinating effort, so that the individual teacher, or the particular school system, may function most effectively and creatively in the education of boys and girls.

This is a challenging concept, and one which makes great demands upon the inspector. It recognizes that supervision is a dynamic art. It involves far more than the application of a few simple formulae. The duties of old-time 'inspection' were clear-cut: not so the procedures for Canada's current generation of supervisors.

This was part of the general background when in 1951, the Canadian Education Association launched a five-year Project in Educational Leadership. This project was made possible by substantial financial assistance from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation of Battle Creek, Michigan, United States of America, as well as by wide support within Canada itself. It is designed to assist school inspectors and superintendents in their task of providing better leadership for better education in Canadian communities. Its whole conception is not one of doing something for superintendents or inspectors; on the contrary, it seeks to make resources available and bring about conditions whereby those strategically-placed officials can co-operate with each other through the project and so do a great deal for themselves and for Canadian education. So far, about one-third of Canada's inspectors of schools have taken part directly in the programme. A basic activity has been a series of Canada-wide short courses and other work conferences for inspectors, which have been planned to ensure the active participation of every member.

It would be difficult to discuss the aims and activities of this project, however, without first providing a brief description of the milieu in which it operates. In the first place, Canada is a

very large country geographically: 4,017 air miles separate the capitals of the provinces of Newfoundland in the east and of British Columbia in the west. Canada's population of fifteen million is scarcely one-eleventh of that of the United States of America to the south, although her land area is one-fifth greater. Ordinary travel between many sections of the country therefore tends to be expensive in terms of both time and money. Add to this the fact that each of Canada's ten provinces is entirely autonomous in matters of education: there is no federal office or ministry of education. The result is that opportunities for co-operative study of common problems by educators from the several provinces have been all too rare.

The Canadian Education Association, however, is maintained as a voluntary information and liaison body by the ten provinces, providing them with a convenient medium for communication on matters of common concern. By 1950 many of the provinces were facing problems in the professional preparation and continuing education of inspectors. A rapidly swelling school population had demanded the appointment of many additional men. What training should, or could, be offered them? Not only was a broad co-operative concept of the inspector's rôle gaining credence, but the educational structure itself at the local level had been undergoing rapid change. Many thoughtful educators felt that, in the widespread development of larger local school areas, experience had tended to outrun theory. There was not yet an organized body of knowledge based on Canadian experience from which inspectors placed in these new situations could draw guidance or inspiration. Special university training in this field was largely theoretical and forced to rely on non-Canadian sources. How could the knowledge and practical experience gained in some areas be made available in other areas and other provinces? And, on the other hand, what of the many problems for which no ready solution had yet been found? How could Canadian inspectors work co-operatively toward needed solutions?

In this situation the Canadian Education Association, with the support of all ten provinces, made an approach to the W. K. Kellogg Foundation for financial assistance. The Foundation was interested and co-operative. An early step was the establishment of a Management Committee,

consisting of several provincial deputy ministers of education, school superintendents, and representatives of universities and of such interested national organizations as the Canadian Teachers' Federation and the Canadian School Trustees' Association. The Canadian Education Association augmented its professional staff to conduct the project, and in 1952 activities began with the following purposes:

1. To stimulate the intercommunication of educational ideas and practices between widely-separated areas in Canada, and through this to contribute to Canadian unity and mutual understanding.
2. To clarify the leadership rôle of superintendents or inspectors in larger school areas, especially non-urban areas.
3. To bring together a fund of knowledge and materials based on Canadian experience in supervision and administration, and to develop principles and procedures designed to improve the effectiveness of Canadian school administration in general.
4. To work out practical solutions to problems now being encountered.
5. To encourage the further development of in-service and pre-service education programmes in school supervision and administration.

Canada-wide Short Courses and Seminars

With these goals in mind several main types of activity have been carried on. The central activity has been a series of inter-provincial seminars or short courses, mainly for inspectors of schools. In the early stages, several work conferences were held on a regional basis. These served to evolve procedures and develop leadership for nation-wide sessions to follow. They led to a major three-week short course each spring, in conjunction with the University of Alberta, involving approximately one hundred educators from Canada's ten provinces. Somewhat parallel courses have also been conducted in the French language, in conjunction with Québec's Université Laval. French-speaking Canadians, located largely in the Province of Québec, number one-third of Canada's population; hence the need for activities in both French and English. To encourage understanding between English and French, however, arrangements are made for some French-speaking educators to attend the

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Alberta courses, and some English-speaking Canadians to attend the Laval courses.

These courses are deliberately designed to avoid a formal lecture-assignment-examination routine. Some organized material on administration and supervision in Canada is presented each day in the form of a lecture by an outstanding educator, followed by discussion; but the essence of each course is the joint application to their immediate problems of the very considerable knowledge and experience represented by course members. They work and live together, in a university atmosphere, away from the pressures of their daily routine. Each is asked well in advance to indicate the nature of the particular problem or problems of concern to him in his own jurisdiction, and on which he would like to work with the help of his *confrères*. Replies tend to group themselves under some such headings as: the improvement of instruction with special reference to working with principals, curriculum development, in-service teacher education programmes, public understanding and support, and the organization and functioning of school districts. A substantial portion of each day is set aside for work in groups on these various topics. Periods are also reserved for individual members to make definite plans for later action on their return to their districts. Extensive library and other resource materials are made available, as well as a large number of consultants, chiefly from departments of education and universities. The rôle of the consultant is to make available specialist knowledge both to groups and individuals. The points of view of teachers, trustees, and home and school organizations are also represented. While three weeks is a short time for such courses, it has been found to be the longest period for which relatively large numbers of senior officials can be freed.

Because of the distances involved (one hundred and one members of a recent course averaged over 2,400 miles in round-trip travel), and also because of the large number of consultants required, this type of seminar is expensive to operate. Practically all course-costs the first year were paid by the Canadian Education Association from the Kellogg Foundation grant. But as the value of the courses became more apparent, employers of members have assumed an increasing share of the costs, so that the 1956 courses will be almost entirely self-supporting.

Indeed all provincial governments and other employers concerned have agreed to a plan for equalizing members' travel and living costs, so that those employers nearest the scene of the courses in effect contribute to the costs incurred by more distant employers in selecting and despatching members.

Another type of Canada-wide conference was held this year. Deans and professors of education from twenty-two Canadian universities and colleges met for the first time to exchange information and discuss the university's rôle in educating educational supervisors and administrators. Needs, aims and methods were discussed. It was the hope of all in attendance that this and subsequent conferences will be the beginning of closer and mutually beneficial co-operation in this field among the widely-separated institutions.

Activities on a Provincial Basis

It is characteristic of the courses described above that resolutions or recommendations do not emerge for approval of the entire course-membership. This arises from the fact that although the courses are inter-provincial, education remains a provincial matter, rather than an inter-provincial or national one. The project simply provides opportunities for exchanging and developing a multitude of ideas, whilst each participant and each province is encouraged to adapt to its own needs whatever may be valuable to it.

This point of view underlines the importance of activities on a provincial basis. A provincial advisory committee has been established by each of the provinces, to serve as a two-way advice and information channel between the province and the project. In most cases this committee has the further purpose of considering what pre-service and in-service activities in supervision and administration may be encouraged or developed within the province. Most provincial advisory committees include in their membership representatives of universities and teacher and trustee groups, as well as inspectors and other officials of the education department. These committees have stimulated the organization of such enterprises as area conferences on administrative and supervisory questions, summer courses at universities, careful joint recommendations for their province with respect to such matters as qualifications for appointment as inspector, or training

programmes for school principals. The project has limited funds available to assist in the initial support of promising developments within provinces in line with project aims.

Activities within Inspectorates

While it is highly important to work out and accept sound principles of administration and supervision, it is all too easy to give mere lip-service to such principles. If the Canadian Education Association-Kellogg Project in Educational Leadership is to make any real difference in the education of boys and girls, then it is extremely important for project participants to face the difficult problems of applying those principles in the light of the many factors peculiar to their own particular situation.

Throughout the work of the project, therefore, participants have been encouraged to think in terms of concrete action to be taken when they are back on the job. This has included following up plans made by individual participants, through continuing correspondence and contact. The majority of these down-to-earth issues carried on within inspectorates have related to work with teachers, often carried out through study groups or institutes or other in-service programmes, using some of the materials and procedures developed in the project. Others relate to school district reorganization, and work with local education authorities, to the supervisory rôle of the principal, to appraisal and reporting on the work of teachers, and to developing public understanding and support.

A further main activity of the leadership project is that of collecting, interpreting, and disseminating data. Eleven pamphlets have been published, ranging from texts of lecture series, through reports of studies on various topics to *The School and the Public*, a volume of successful techniques for enhancing communication reported by Canadian inspectors. Over forty articles by people who have participated in the project have appeared in various education periodicals; these draw upon and extend the usefulness of discussions that have been held in other project activities. In preparation at the moment is a pamphlet tentatively entitled *Making Work Conferences Work*. Also in preparation is a major reference book on the work of rural school superintendents in Canada.

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in communicating ideas between educators in the various parts of Canada is to be found in the wide extent to which project materials are already being used by provincial advisory committees, university personnel, and by other groups within provinces. These materials, which were drawn up to supplement personal contacts amongst participants in inter-provincial conferences of the project, constitute the beginnings of a fund of knowledge which is not only recorded on paper, but which is becoming increasingly meaningful in the minds of practising supervisors and administrators. In the task of organizing and interpreting this emerging Canadian-based knowledge, however, only a beginning has been made so far. Moreover, in large part it consists of the expression and analysis of the opinions of experienced men. This is a forward step; but the next step will be to treat many of these findings as hypotheses for further research.

What of the Future?

Considerable stress has been placed upon evaluation in the project both in order to evolve ways of appraising the project itself, and also in

order to encourage among participants an appreciation of the practical worth of developing an evaluative attitude to any activity from the start. How well are we doing what we are doing? Are we doing what we ought to be doing? Such questions can usefully be kept before any educator.

At the end of its third year the project held a major appraisal and planning session. Careful analyses were presented by representatives of various groups concerned. It was the unanimous view that the project has demonstrated clearly:

1. Increasingly widespread realization of the significance of the position of the inspector, necessitating both well-founded preparation and continuous in-service education for that position;
2. A trend toward a kind of leadership in which autocratic direction gives way to guidance and more liberal sharing of responsibility;
3. The soundness of a co-operative Canada-wide approach in bringing the wealth of different Canadian experiences to bear upon the various problems of the inspectorate;

4. An eminent need for the continuance of interchange and collation of experience and theory in educational leadership in Canada. On the basis of this appraisal, additional funds have been found to expand the programme originally planned for 1955 and 1956.

But this Canadian experiment in education for supervision and administration, as organized at present under generous financial aid from the Kellogg Foundation, is scheduled to come to an end on the 31st December, 1956. What will remain after that?

Even if nothing further were done in an organized way, it is certain that much of what has already been accomplished would continue to be felt in the educational leadership of local Canadian communities. It would be kept alive by the many Canadian educators who have taken active part in project activities during this five-year period, and by the influence of those activities on them and others.

But it is equally certain that organized activities will *not* end at this point. At the inter-provincial level, the Management Committee is hopeful that something of the proven value of a Canada-wide approach in the field of supervision and administration can be maintained. One likely development is the extension and strengthening of information and communication services through the Canadian Education Association, with special reference to local school systems. Most educators would also like to see the series of inter-provincial seminars for school inspectors continued. The University of Alberta, profiting by experience in the project, is also considering an advanced graduate programme in administration and supervision, proposed to cater for a Canada-wide student body. Its hope is to work out a programme which would entail a concentration of resources—staff, students and opportunities for practical field work—beyond anything which is now available at Canadian institutions.

Meanwhile a multiplicity of activities will continue under appropriate local arrangements: on a provincial basis, on a university basis, and within superintendencies. Seven provinces have already made changes in their patterns of periodic in-service conferences for their inspectors. Two provinces are experimenting with induction programmes for newly appointed inspectors. In addition to the University of Alberta, at least six other universities have been seriously re-

examining their offerings in education, with the aim of expanding and developing courses and programmes in an attempt to meet the needs of men and women who find themselves rather suddenly in charge of schools or in other posts of greater responsibility. In all of this there is evident a healthy spirit of co-operation: there are several examples of activities involving joint action and financial support by a provincial department of education, a university, a teachers' organization and local school boards.

In these five years the thinking of large numbers of Canadian educators and lay citizens has been turned to questions of school supervision and administration. It seems fair to say that a new climate of opinion is abroad, in which not only is the need for specialized education for administration and supervision becoming increasingly clear, but in which the value of *continuing* education for inspectors and other professional leaders in education is prized highly. It is to be realized that even in these days of severe shortage of qualified personnel—and perhaps especially so—time and money spent in enlarging the educational horizons of school inspectors, principals and other officials is indeed necessary and well spent. Otherwise, in seeking ever wiser and more effective leadership for our schools, Canada runs the risk of having to be satisfied with educational technicians, rather than educational statesmen.

Constructive Education and Mental Health

N.E.F. CONFERENCE
for members and non-members

UTRECHT, HOLLAND,

JULY 26th—AUGUST 8th, 1956

Please look at the preliminary programme enclosed

N.B.—The accommodation in houseboats announced will not, we fear, be available, but there will be plenty of other good accommodation at 10 florins a-day.

CHANGING RÔLE OF THE INSPECTORATE¹

A NEW ZEALAND VIEW

*D. G. Ball, Assistant Director of Education, and A. E. Campbell, Chief Inspector of Primary Schools,
Department of Education, Wellington, New Zealand*

THE functions of an inspector of schools are largely determined by the quality of the teaching service within which he works. When the teachers employed by any administration are poorly educated and trained, strict supervision of their work is necessary in order to establish standards and raise the level of the teaching. At this stage, which in New Zealand extended from the beginnings of organized education until well after the establishment of a national system of primary schools in the years following the Act of 1877, the inspector's chief rôle is that of enforcement officer. In New Zealand, enforcement was carried out by means of a system under which the inspector examined once a year the children in all the standard classes in each school in his area. The Departmental regulation laid it down that the examination was to be so conducted 'as to enable the inspector to say of any individual pupil that he has passed, or failed to pass, a given standard': the most experienced headmaster could not promote a child from one class to the next. This was the period, too, during which the inspectorate had to see to it that the schools were complying in detail with the requirements of very rigid syllabuses of instruction. The individual inspector might be a cultivated, humane, and wide-minded man. The fact remains that he was largely an enforcement officer, and, indeed, could hardly be very much more in the educational conditions of the time.

As teachers become better qualified academically and professionally, and develop a greater sense of corporate responsibility, the function of enforcement tends to slip more and more into the background. Much of the onus for maintaining adequate standards passes across to the teachers themselves. Thus in New Zealand external examination of primary-school children was progressively reduced, until finally, in 1936, it was abolished altogether. Likewise, the syllabuses became less mandatory and more in the nature of suggestions, while at the same time teachers themselves shared more and more fully in the work of compiling them. As the function of enforcement becomes less important, inspectors

are able to move towards a relation of partnership with teachers. Ideally, they cease to be regarded as taskmasters and come to be widely accepted by teachers as friends and colleagues who work with them in the interests of the children. The inspector, it is true, is still charged with the responsibility of safeguarding minimum standards (in the humane treatment of children no less than in scholastic matters) and, when the occasion demands, he must never hesitate to act firmly. He is more than an adviser. However, when the teaching service as a whole is competent and progressive, his functions as an enforcement officer need rarely obtrude.

The Inspector as Grading Officer

A movement of this kind from strict supervision of the teacher by the inspector to a co-operative relationship between colleagues tends to be characteristic of all developing educational systems. The ideal relationship is, however, much harder to achieve in systems such as ours in New Zealand in which the inspector assesses and 'grades' the individual teacher for purposes of appointment and promotion. It is not easy for a teacher to be entirely at his ease in the presence of the officer on whose judgment his professional future so largely depends. Nor is it always easy for the inspector to give a teacher all the friendly encouragement he needs without at the same time building up hopes (that can only be cruelly disappointed later) of a higher assessment than he can be given if he is to be justly ranked in relation to other teachers. Our experience in New Zealand seems to show only too clearly that, if the inspector becomes mainly a grading officer, psychological barriers are set up that make it impossible to attain anything approaching the ideal relationship between inspectors and teachers as professional persons.

It is, indeed, one of the real tragedies of our educational history in New Zealand that the

¹ This article refers to the primary-school inspectorate only. Since the Education Act of 1914 primary-school inspectors in New Zealand have been officers of the central Department of Education. However, they are organized in groups which work in one or other of the ten local Education Board districts. The groups have from two to twelve members, and each is led by a local Senior Inspector of Schools.

natural evolution of the rôle of the primary-school inspector was abruptly arrested just at the point at which a big advance became possible. The primary-school teaching service in 1920 was a much better educated and better trained service than it had been in 1900 or 1880; and it had been touched by the new, liberal spirit in education born of the First World War. Yet it was just at this time—and with the approval of the teachers themselves—that there was introduced a system of inspection and grading which made the inspector more completely a grading officer than he had ever been before. The system was designed to put an end, once and for all, to anything in the nature of nepotism or local favouritism in the making of appointments. With this objective no New Zealander would wish to quarrel. But the form of the new system was quite another matter. Under it, all primary-school teachers, from the youngest beginner to the most senior headmaster, were graded by the inspectors every year on a numerical scale of some 200 points; all positions were advertised; and, except for a few special appointments, the highest graded applicant for any position had to be appointed to it. The scheme included a right of appeal to an independent judicial authority against the grading marks awarded by the inspectors.

The effects of the new system upon inspectors, and upon their relations with teachers, were thoroughly bad. Committed to an endless round of grading visits, sitting constantly in judgment on his professional colleagues, and ever aware of the possibility of appeals, the inspector inevitably tended to think of himself mainly as a grading officer—and to behave accordingly. If some inspectors kept their professional vitality, that was a tribute to their personal qualities and not to the system within which they worked. Teachers for their part, were incessantly reminded of the inspectors' judicial functions, and this seriously hindered the growth of an easier and more constructive professional relationship between teachers and inspectors. The change from annual to biennial grading in 1942 brought a most welcome measure of relief; but although it resulted in improved relationships and in an expansion of inspectors' advisory functions, it still left the problem largely unsolved.

Though the system of numerical grading had many other weaknesses, it proved extremely difficult to reach agreement on an alternative

scheme. For one thing, a solution had to satisfy certain conditions that do not apply in many other countries. Primary-school teachers in New Zealand will have nothing to do with any proposed scheme of appointments involving the use of reports which the teacher himself does not see, and cannot appeal against to an independent authority. Moreover, to be acceptable, a scheme must guarantee, to a degree that will satisfy teachers, that a local applicant does not get a position when another, living 800 miles away in a different district, is professionally superior to him. In other words, New Zealand is committed to a *Dominion* scheme of appointments and promotions. This implies that central controls must be exercised to ensure, as far as possible, that when the same rating is given teachers by the different local groups of inspectors, it indicates substantially the same measure of teaching efficiency. The limits within which a solution had to be sought were therefore in some ways very rigid. Hence it was a major event of our recent educational history when, in September 1954, agreement on a new appointments and promotions scheme was reached between the Department of Education, the New Zealand Educational Institute (the teachers' professional organization), and the Education Boards (the local employing authorities).

The New Appointments and Promotion Scheme

The essence of the problem is so to arrange the machinery for appointments and promotions that the work of assessing teachers is reduced to the necessary minimum. This is not to imply that assessment is other than a highly important professional task that must be most conscientiously carried out, not only in fairness to the individual teacher, but also because everyone suffers if the most suitable people are not selected for posts of responsibility. Indeed, one can go farther and say that unless teachers believe that the work of assessment is being well done, they will lack the confidence in the inspectorate that is the condition of all forms of fruitful professional co-operation between inspectors and teachers. It is true, too, that assessment can be, and sometimes is, carried out in ways that give little emphasis to its judicial purpose and that make it a genuinely constructive professional experience for the teacher (and even for the inspector as

well). Nonetheless, the judicial purpose can never be completely forgotten, and there is no case for asking inspectors to do any formal assessment whatsoever beyond the necessary minimum.

How, then, can the volume of assessment be reduced? Several methods are possible. Assessment can be limited, at least in a measure, to those teachers who actually desire promotion; the numbers interested in promotion can in turn be reduced by making it possible for teachers to proceed a long way up the salary scale without changing their positions; and the intervals between one assessment and the next can be extended (for example, from two years to three).

In working out our new appointments and promotion scheme, we in New Zealand have used a combination of these methods. The way for the new scheme was opened up in 1952 when new salary scales for primary-school teachers were introduced. Before this, positions in the primary-school service had been finely graded and teachers had been forced to move frequently to gain salary promotion. The new scales go far in the direction of paying the teacher instead of the position, and they will have the effect of greatly reducing the proportion of teachers who will need reports from the inspectors because they wish to change their jobs. The assessment of teachers, which had become biennial under numerical grading, will in future be triennial; and except, for teachers just entering the service, only those will be assessed who ask for reports. When the present transitional period is over, a marked change of emphasis in the work of inspectors will have been made possible. Though assessment will remain a big and very important part of their work, there will be much wider scope for other, more creative, professional tasks.

The details of the new appointments and promotion scheme are not relevant here, but one significant feature of it should be mentioned. Teachers themselves are to share in the making of appointments through direct representation, alongside the central Department and the local Education Boards, on Appointments Committees, and they are also to have an important voice in the supervision and development of the whole scheme. This is one of the biggest advances towards full professional status that primary-school teachers in New Zealand have made during the whole history of our national system. It

symbolizes the kind of relationship many of us would like to see permeating the whole education structure.

The Positive Functions of the Inspectorate

With enforcement reduced to a very minor function, and with the business of assessment put in something like its proper place, the inspector¹ will be free to play a much more creative rôle in educational affairs. For he has a number of positive functions (all in some degree carried out at present) that are especially his by virtue of his position in the education system. They may be summed up in the words 'educational leadership'—by which, of course, we mean the sort of leadership that rests on very much more than mere authority.

The central function of an inspector of schools, as we in New Zealand are now seeing it, is simply that of guiding, as well as he can, the efforts of teachers to serve the children in the schools; in other words, that of helping school staffs and individual teachers to do a better professional job. This is a function inspectors can exercise in many different ways: by assisting individual teachers with their personal and professional problems; by consulting with schools over their policies and programmes; by fostering good staff team work; by organizing study groups, encouraging professional reading, and actively supporting other forms of in-service training; by judicious stimulation and guidance of experimental work in the schools; by working with teachers on such specific projects as a district plan for school library development; by spreading among teachers fresh and useful ideas from whatever source.

To do this work effectively, an inspector must first win the goodwill of teachers and prove himself worthy of their respect. Once he has gained their confidence, his best work will be done by getting to know them well as professional colleagues, threshing out their problems with them, and offering them the sort of advice that is really helpful and relevant in the particular case. This calls for a nice balance of the positive conviction that is necessary for any sort of leadership, and of tolerance and humility. As every discerning inspector knows, many teachers have gifts he cannot claim, and there are many

¹ It is a sign of the changing conception of the inspector's rôle that inspectors would like to see their title changed. 'Inspector of Schools' smacks too much of the educational policeman. 'Education Officer' is one of the alternatives that have been suggested.

educational questions on which no one has the right to be dogmatic. Above all, the inspector should encourage every stirring of originality, of independence of thought, and of genuine searching for educational truth.

The inspector should obviously give special weight to his work with head teachers, his senior colleagues. One of the worst effects of the system of numerical grading was that it tended to depress the status of the primary-school head teacher, and we in New Zealand now have the task of rebuilding his position. The inspectorate can achieve little unless it has a good understanding with head teachers, who in turn are themselves giving enlightened leadership both in their schools and in their local communities. Inspectors must therefore take head teachers into their confidence, work out district policies in collaboration with them, support them individually and collectively in all reasonable ways, and be ready to delegate responsibilities to them. Here, if anywhere, there is need for a two-way flow of ideas. Moreover, if in the future there is to be a further evolution of the inspectors' functions, the change must come about largely through greater delegation to head teachers. There are certain tasks—notably, liaison with the teachers' training colleges, help to young teachers just out of college, and the development of parent-teacher activities—that demand the very closest co-operation between inspectors and head teachers.

One important aspect of this central function is that of helping to bring to teachers the material means for their work and the assistance of any special services that are available. In New Zealand, the schools get help from itinerant specialists in physical education, art and craft, nature study, and infant education, from speech therapists, from a small psychological service, and from other specialists. With his wide and intimate knowledge of the needs of the schools on the one side, and of the specialist services available to them on the other, the inspector can do much to get the right help to the right place and to make the activities of these services more productive.

Secondly, the inspector should take a leading part in informing the public about the work of the schools, and particularly about the newer developments in educational thought and practice. This can be done by various means, including talks to parent-teacher associations and other interested groups. Equally important is the task of helping

to make effective links between the schools and the other agencies, public and private, that are concerned with the welfare of children. A fine lead here has recently been given in several districts in which there have been set up, on the initiative of the inspectors, Child Care Councils which co-ordinate the activities of teachers, medical officers, and social workers on behalf of maladjusted children.

Thirdly, it is the function of each district team of inspectors, and especially of the local Senior Inspector, to keep the broader educational needs of the area under constant review. The inspectorate should be quick to note unsatisfied needs—for example, the need for better provision for backward children—and it should keep a close watch on the effects of social and administrative changes. Only in this way can the Senior Inspector give good professional advice to his Board and to the Director of Education (whose local representative he is), and be in a position to play his essential part in helping to shape national educational policy.

Recruits to the inspectorate vary considerably in their educational experience and in their special interests and abilities. But it is true of all of them that they come from positions of some importance and have shown more than the ordinary measure of vigour and enthusiasm, breadth of outlook beyond the average, technical knowledge and skill of a considerable order, and the ability to plan, lead, organize, and initiate. One of the most distressing consequences of the old system of numerical grading was that it tied inspectors to a situation in which the very qualities that had led to their appointment could no longer be fully used.

In the inspectorate, as elsewhere, traditions once established die hard. So deeply has the conception of the inspector as a grading officer been driven into minds of New Zealand primary-school inspectors during the past forty years, that it would be quite unrealistic to imagine that it will immediately fade away now that we have a new scheme requiring much less assessment of teachers. It may well be necessary, therefore, to combat the tendency of some inspectors to magnify the duty of assessment. We must learn to see it in proper relation to the other, even more important, tasks of the inspectorate, and to devise ways of carrying it out as quietly and unobtrusively as possible.

THE N.E.F. CONFERENCE FOR INSPECTORS¹

J. C. L. Ackermans, State Inspector of Schools

I FIND the task of giving a general impression of this international conference much easier than I should have done at the time, because I have been able to establish some distance of time between myself and it. How the other participants fared I do not know, but personally I have gradually learnt to appreciate this conference, or rather I have learnt to appreciate it in a different way, now that the many varied impressions have begun to unite themselves and thus offer me an easier picture to judge. To put it bluntly—more than one participant was of the same mind as the English colleague who said on one of the first days: 'One just *cannot* talk for a whole week about one's work!' Also all participants agreed that the conference ended just when everybody began to understand one another. Another Englishman remarked: 'We have been far too polite this week; we should have put our opinions forward bluntly.' He meant what we all felt, namely that this conference, which will be remembered for the magnificent atmosphere which reigned there right from the first evening, took too long before getting to the 'heart of the matter'. Was this a matter of lack of organization? I do not think so, or rather I no longer think so. I am rather of the opinion that the participants, myself certainly included, came to the conference in a frame of mind which opposed the general atmosphere in which the N.E.F. had organized the work. But the aim, looking back on it, had been clearly stated. 'The purpose of this conference is to enable members to exchange facts and views on the aims and techniques of school inspection *in a peaceful setting which gives time for personal meeting.*'

Opposing the N.E.F.'s aims, many participants, seemed to demand the definite conclusion, results, *in any case something tangible*, which we on the continent of Europe see as our due.

The main theme of the conference was the question of the correct relationship in inspection between Authority and Guidance. I wonder whether too many participants travelled to Chichester in a mood of 'authority', that is to say, thinking along lines which have become so familiar to us that we no longer see them as lines? If so, we needed a certain switching-over before we could think on the same lines as the

N.E.F. I think that this was even the case with those who are members of the N.E.F. Looking back on it, the N.E.F. certainly put into practice a wonderful piece of practical new education at this international gathering!

The secret of the slow warming-up lay in the fact that we spoke a different language—it was not a difference of 'languages' which is easily surmounted—but a difference of the language which the N.E.F. spoke, and the language which the participants had come to speak as a result of many years' of professional experience. Opposing our established personal opinions, and our thinking on lines of 'authority', the N.E.F. offered a first-class piece of 'guidance'. It must have been far from easy for our Chairman to coach a gathering which held so many varied opinions. More and more do I see what a good and thorough job he made of it.

It is undeniable that the English liking for concrete and practical solutions, the English dislike of following a route which has been established long beforehand, the English preference for compromise which can be attuned to different situations (how often did I hear my English colleagues use the term 'muddle through'), it is undeniable that all these played a rôle; but it was equally certain that the tone and technique of the conference were *purposely* held 'permissive'.

Does this mean that the conference was altogether without structure? Three lectures were offered us, to canalize the discussions to some extent. These lectures were: Professor J. A. Lauwerys: *Authority and Guidance*; Miss M. L. Hourd: *The Teacher's Need for Guidance*; and Mrs. L. Herbert: *The Human Problem in the Educational Field*. Professor Lauwerys's lecture was the President's opening address. Alas, he was prevented from attending the conference. His absence was perhaps one of the main reasons for the very slow discussions of the first few days. This I take to be the greatest pity. The lack of an immediate discussion of Professor Lauwerys's thoughts led to a great deal of

¹ This is a note on a Conference held at Bishop Otter College, Chichester, from April 14th to 22nd, 1955, attended by 29 inspectors of schools from 14 countries. Mr. Ackermans, who is a State Inspector in the Netherlands, wrote it for the September issue of *Vernieuwing* (Vol. 14, No. 126) and we publish this translation with grateful acknowledgements.—ED.

misunderstanding and also to a great many ambiguities and lack of clarity in the discussions and to lack of confrontation of opinions. This was most apparent as regards the term 'authority' which was forever being discussed but which does not only comprehend logical and philosophical contents, but also legal, psychological and alas even political ideas. This uncertainty as regards each other's meanings became something unavoidable. For example, I was struck by a very special interpretation of the word 'authority' by a discussion group which was of the opinion that the inspector should not give himself an air of authority merely deriving from the fact that he had been made an inspector. To me this came as a surprise, for his appointment does not stand on its own, but is made in the name of a community which wishes to control the education of its youth by means of the inspector. To many, the relationship between the words 'authority' and 'authoritarian' has become so vague that one thinks to experience the faulty qualities associated with the latter at the mere mention of the former.

As I was able to notice at the final meeting, we wasted several days before we got to discussing the so important *sources* of problems, that is to say, our own experiences. Organization, technique, etc., may be important aspects of inspection, but they reach their full importance only in the fundamental insights and opinions of *people*. The law which governs the inspection is only a framework beneath which lie the ideals which give it its deeper meaning. That explains why it is so difficult to understand and penetrate each other's problems, in spite of the first-class opening meeting during which every participant had a chance to speak of his work, his problems, his ideals. The important matter of the proposed division between the inspectoral apparatus which is in charge of the 'authority' and the apparatus which is given the task of 'guidance' must of necessity appear in a totally different light to an Israeli and to a Dutchman, must be different to the

inspector from British North Borneo and to the inspector from Yugoslavia.

Highlights of the conference to me were the moments in which certain participants spoke wholeheartedly of inspectoral problems in their countries, so that the deep convictions, opinions and ideals naturally came to the fore. None of the participants will forget the story of our friend from Barbados, nor the very able summary of his country and its problems by the man from India, the inspector from Borneo, the problems of Germany and Yugoslavia, the heavily charged speech of Mr. Adiel from Israel. Was not the highlight of the conference reached when the latter urged the West European representatives to come to the fore with *their own* problems? The silence which followed on his words lasted several minutes and showed what I was trying to formulate above, namely that the real problems of inspection are in the first place not problems of inspection but of humanity. Did not the discussion groups have their best meeting on the morning after Mr. Adiel had put his question about the human problem? That his question was not really answered—were we not still too obsessed by the external, the technical side of his question?—did not detract from its importance.

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NEWS AND NOTES

FRENCH-SPEAKING BELGIUM

Our Section held only two public meetings between April and November: one on the 7th and 8th May when we discussed, partly in groups, some new developments in the use of audio-visual aids in education, and one on the 4th and 5th June, an Exhibition of Finger-Painting. The discussion on audio-visual aids was held in the excellent premises of the Centre for Education and Research in Nutrition of the Brabant. More than a hundred people took part, including several university professors and inspectors of primary and secondary education.

M. F. Dubois gave the opening address 'The Film Screen at the Service of Teachers'. *M. M. Schepens* gave a commentary on his coloured educational films. *M. A. Charlier*, a delegate from the Belgian television, outlined the help that television can bring to the illustration of school subject matter, and indicated how teachers could usefully collaborate with television in the production of school programmes. *M. R. van Waeyenberghe*, Secretary of the Consultative Committee on Pedagogy, introduced a discussion on, 'An Examination of Present Day Aspects of the use of Film Strips in School'.

Points from the Discussion: The film strip obliges the teacher to use pictures in a given order determined by the author; they should perhaps make way for the epidiascope which enables teachers to arrange their illustrations at will, in accordance with the real needs of his class. The epidiascope also makes possible the projection of analytical geographical and historical charts (specially designed so as to abstract the specific points which the teacher wishes to stress).

Finally our section has offered its services to Belgian television, in order to collaborate actively in the study of the problems associated with the establishment of a School Television Service.

The Exhibition of Finger-Painting was a follow-up of a competition of Finger-Painting, organized in the Brussels kindergartens. It enabled people to examine the results of a very interesting technique which aims to help small children to establish greater manual dexterity and a better psychological equilibrium. Illustrations were barred from the exhibition because it is difficult to assess how much children's illustrations of well known stories is influenced by pictures they have already seen and remembered. Only drawings based on personal observation and imagination were exhibited.

M. F. Dubois, Vice-President of our Section; *M. Cooremans*, Deputy Adviser to the Municipality of Public Instruction in Brussels; *M. Oster-*

rieth, Professor at the University of Brussels; and *M. J. Peeters*, General Inspector of Primary Education, all addressed us. The Exhibition was open both on Saturday and Sunday and was visited by a very large number of people.

Our Section was represented at the following international meetings: the International Inspectors' Conference, Chichester (England) April 14th-22nd. The Conference of FICE at Courcelles (Belgium) from May 29th-30th. And the meeting of Section Representatives at Weilburg (Germany) from 25th July to 3rd August. Three group visits by teachers from abroad have been organized by the section. Two German groups from the 19th to 22nd September and from the 9th to 12th October, and a Dutch group from the 1st to 6th November.

H. BISCOMPTE, *Secretary*

JOHANNESBURG

The main activity of the Johannesburg Branch of the New Education Fellowship since our last report has been the organization and carrying out of a six-week lecture tour in this country for Mr. Hunter Diack of the Institute of Education, Nottingham University. Mr. Diack was invited to address teachers, students and parents on the teaching of reading. This was a bold undertaking for Mr. Diack's methods are opposed to the official methods used in this country, and consequently we expected a large amount of opposition. We certainly got a lot, but on the whole we received great co-operation, which resulted in the tour being a success.

We hoped that Mr. Diack's addresses would help clarify thinking on the methods of teaching reading, arouse discussion, and result in a careful examination of the methods used at present with the object of improving them where possible. We feel this object has been achieved. Mr. Diack drew large audiences, and a great deal of heated discussion resulted. It would be difficult to ascertain the percentage of teachers for and against his methods, but we do know that he now has a number of enthusiastic followers in this country, as well as a number who are strongly opposed to him.

Mr. Diack lectured in Graaff-Reinet, Grahams-town, Fort Hare, East London, Bloemfontein, Kimberley, Johannesburg, Pretoria and Cape Town.

We have not yet made any plans for our programme for 1956 or 1957 but my private opinion is that the establishment of a National Section in South Africa is now possible, and should be placed high on the agenda for our future activities.

D. M. LUCKIN, *Vice-Chairman*

VICTORIA

In our last report we mentioned that Dr. Bream, the Group worker from America who came out with a Fulbright Grant, was about to land on our shores. The time he spent working with us here in Victoria provided new and exciting experiences for us, and—costing us nothing—it has been the means of giving us a wealth of information and practical guidance as well. He led seminars, gave practical demonstrations of discussion techniques, distributed literature that was simple and easily read, and also reading lists.

As a follow up of these groups of seminars, members have formed to study critically the report drawn up by Professor Freeman Butts on Australian education. N.E.F. members feel this report expresses greater confirmation of our ideals than anything ever published before. As part of the report the writer urges groups everywhere to get together to look critically at our educational policy and practice—so the Victoria Section has given people here opportunities to do so.

Our Parent pamphlets series is now well under way; we have published three and another two have been drawn up. We know we have much to learn (especially from our American cousins) about publishing worthwhile material for parents, but we are keen to do this and to go to better and better publications.

Our Branch at *Geelong* flourishes—threatening to overshadow us—a situation we find challenging and exciting.

Don McLean spent a weekend with us, bringing news of N.E.F. folk and activities in many quarters of the earth. His personality, his enthusiasm, his vivid word pictures of schools and persons he had seen made it a memorable time for us.

Then out of a clear blue sky dropped Nicholas Gillett, an Englishman who had been spared from David Jordan's Dudley College to work with Unesco in the Philippines for a twelve-month. (We know he did not really come by chance, for a great deal of hard work was put in by Clarice McNamara in planning his visit to Australia.) Here, in Victoria, he became part of the lecture team for the Pre-School Conference, but in between sessions the N.E.F. discussed his two favourite topics—Education and the Philippines. We found him most refreshing and gained much from discussion with him.

Now we feel creative! Just wait till we make our next report—then you will hear all about it.

NANCY SHERRARD, *President*

SCOTLAND

The Scottish Conference on 'The Junior Secondary School' which began in St. Andrews on Friday, 23rd September, was considered by one of those present, who has attended many Conferences, as the best post-war Scottish Conference on Education he has so far attended.

There were present in all one hundred and fifty of whom about one hundred and ten were resident, being accommodated very comfortably in two of the University hostels. Administration, the Inspectorate and Education Committee members as well as teachers and head teachers were all represented at the Conference.

Dr. Douglas McIntosh, Director of Education for Fife, opened the Conference with a well-informed, profound and inspiring address upon the Junior Secondary School. He spoke of the necessity to consider the needs of the school against its present-day background of unsettled international relations, nuclear warfare and the complexity of daily life, frequently baffling to the most highly intelligent and educated among us. By the creation of two types of secondary school with different courses and curricula we were creating a division between children which might present us with difficult social problems in the future. The comprehensive school was one solution of this problem, but only by such schools being of enormous size were they economically possible, and their size made them unacceptable on many counts.

Dr. Reith, Deputy Director of Education for Edinburgh, pleaded for less specialization in the Junior Secondary School. Second stream pupils at least should receive all their teaching from one person, and they would thus gain a sense of security which he thought they lost by being passed from one teacher to another.

The ever-youthful Dr. W. Boyd introduced the next session on Saturday morning when the Newer Secondary Pupil was discussed. He stated his belief in the need for allowing children to grow. We had to remember that 'all God's children had wings, and we had to be careful not to clip them'. Mr. Murchison, Headmaster of Amstir Park School, Edinburgh, outlined the difficulties of a school such as his in a new housing estate. The 'teddy-boy' suits, jiving and juke boxes were the common experience of his children during the weekends, and it was difficult for the school to compete with these attractions. The more teachers knew about their pupils' leisure occupations, their homes and their families, the more easily they could provide an education suited to their needs.

HEINEMANN

The New English Course by

RAYMOND O'MALLEY

Senior English Master, Dartington Hall School

and **DENYS THOMPSON**

Headmaster, Yeovil School

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English One

Published in March, this book has already been widely adopted in every type of secondary school.

'Is winning golden opinions.' **A Public School**

'A very sound book.'

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'It is well-planned, comprehensive, and leavened with a redeeming humour. The emphasis throughout is on promoting thought and discussion.'

The Times Educational Supplement

With illustrations by J. S. Goodall.

5s. 6d.

English Two

In this book great care has been taken to base the various exercises on material that is interesting in its own right to 12-13 year-olds. The aim is to make the content of the book such that children will 'browse' in it for their pleasure, as well as working such exercises as they are set.

With illustrations by Maurice Percival.

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99 GREAT RUSSELL ST., W.C.1

On Sunday morning, Dr. Dickson, H.M.I., and Dr. Inglis, Director of Studies in Moray House, spoke of the Junior Secondary Teacher. Dr. Dickson emphasized the need for teachers to take part in extra curricula activities. These were the pursuits that provided a desirable atmosphere in school and attracted the loyalty of pupils by creating a worthwhile school spirit. Dr. Inglis dealt with the training of teachers, and pointed out the limiting effect of Education Department Regulations and the brevity of the training period. He described how by Colloquia addressed by university lecturers, headmasters and others, students were able, in an informal manner, to learn much about the problems and difficulties of their job.

In addition to these lectures there were films on Saturday night and on Saturday and Sunday forenoons the Conference split into groups for discussion. Group leaders reported on Sunday afternoon and put forward questions for the Speakers to answer.

Apart from being a great experience and stimulus the Conference was an outstanding financial success, and as a result the Scottish Section is now 'in clover'—well maybe not 'in clover' but certainly better off than it ever has been.

The Branches have now all more or less completed their arrangements for at least the first part of the session. *Edinburgh* is to have a course of Lectures on the Intellectual, Creative and Imaginative, Spiritual and the Physical development of Children.

Fife have already had a profitable Coffee Morning as a result of which the Branch is £20 richer. The Probationer Teachers in *Fife* have again been entertained and their programme includes meetings at Dunfermline and Leven to meet the inconvenience of teachers living at a distance from *Kirkcaldy*.

Ayrshire Branch's meetings include lectures on Spastics, Teacher Training and a Code of Etiquette, widely different subjects but by lecturers of considerable experience. *Dundee* have secured what would appear to be a most attractive group of speakers, and if they all live up to their reputation the *Dundee* members are obviously to have an interesting series of meetings. *Aberdeen* are hoping to make a lot of money out of a Coffee Morning on the 7th October. This session they are continuing to run classes on Parent Education and, as an experiment, in place of the usual monthly meeting they intend to hold two week-end Conferences—one on Handwriting and the other on Discipline.

WILLIAM CHRISTIE, *International Secretary*

MR. A. A. BLOOM

We record with great regret the death of Mr. A. A. Bloom, on Tuesday, 20th September. We hope to republish an article of Mr. Bloom's in the December issue of *The New Era* along with a brief tribute to him and his work.

An open meeting in commemoration of his work is being called by the E.N.E.F. It will be held in the Lecture Room at 1 Park Crescent, London, W.1., on Tuesday, November 29th, at 5.30 p.m.—Ed.

Letter to the Editor

MADAM,

I can't refrain from writing to express my sorrow and shock at the news of Alex Bloom's death. I don't know if he had beloved relatives, but if so, and to his friends, I would like to say how very fine a person I found him when in Denmark, and how very much I have always enjoyed and appreciated his writings in *The New Era*. From accounts by Charles Bull and Don McLean of his school, I should say Alex Bloom will be very very hard to replace. It is sad to think he died so relatively early; on the other hand it was a wonderful way to die—without pain or long illness.

CLARICE McNAMARA

27 St. John's Avenue, Gordon,
New South Wales, Australia

Other correspondence and all Book Reviews will have to be held over until the December issue because of lack of space.—Ed.

SIXTH FORMERS' COURSE AT BRETTON HALL

The Principal and the staff of Bretton Hall Training College for Art, Music and Drama spend two weeks of their summer holidays each year running an experimental course for sixth formers in which the students are able to study more closely, thoroughly and freely their special interest in the arts.

Although it is primarily a holiday course, the students spend the mornings in serious study of either Art, Music or Drama and much good and interesting work is accomplished. An hour is spent at the beginning of each morning in group movement in which a pattern of action is built up. It is an extremely strenuous hour for the first few days, but the groans generally subside as the stiffness wanes. The rest of the morning is then spent with tutors in each student's chosen art.

The Artists have the choice of three groups: painting, clay modelling, and pottery and sculpture. As few of the students have ever attempted potting or sculpturing before much ground must be covered in these crafts. The music programme is divided into three groups: lectures on music and its history, this year devoted to that of English composers; study in one of four groups, namely recorders, keyboard, orchestra and madrigals; and choral for all music students.

The Drama group divides the course into three parts in which they study three plays each for three days—a

classic, a Shakespeare play and a modern one.

The daily programme is set out so that the students have ample free time and are able to further their interests in the other courses, with the help of tutors as well as on their own, at the same time gaining from the work of their fellow students.

The afternoon is left completely free, but two or three excursions are arranged for those who wish to visit York and other places of interest. Very few students leave the park otherwise as there are ample amusements available, including tennis, cricket, swimming and canoeing, as well as the lovely grounds in which to walk. An hour and a half is given after tea to a second subject. After supper, dancing, choral work, a lecture, poetry reading, or recital is arranged for the students.

From the students' point of view this is an ideal course set in a superbly comfortable college with ample hot water, hot drinks and varied food. After sixth-form life the freedom and atmosphere of unassuming talent are at the same time relaxing and refreshing to work in. Interest in all natural talents is encouraged, sport and literature being equally important. The student feels that his individual opinion and contribution to the course is respected but also taken for granted by both fellow students and staff between whom there is complete co-operation.

Caroline Volkov (*A Sixth Former*)

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Several scholarships are offered on the results of entrance tests held at the end of March.

Prospectus and details of admission procedure and entrance scholarships may be obtained from the Headmaster.

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Established in 1940, Kilquhanity House frankly owes its inception to the work of A. S. Neill, who now considers it in the direct line of his own school and that of Homer Lane. It does not, however, cater for problem children. In practice there is an attempt to combine the traditional thoroughness of Scottish education with self-government for the pupils. Activity methods are used throughout, and the teaching staff is qualified to the standards demanded by the Scottish Education Department, which inspects the school. There is ample opportunity for practice in all the creative arts. A small mixed farm is a fundamental part—as distinct from an adjunct—of the school. The diet is on food reform lines, though children do not require to be vegetarian.

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Scholarships are sometimes available, and further information about these may be obtained from the Headmaster.

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

NEW EDUCATION—A PERSONAL STATEMENT

Dr. K. G. Saiyidain, Adviser on Education to the Government of India

THE New Education Fellowship has done me the honour of electing me as its President and I really do not know how to prove myself worthy of this great confidence. My predecessors in this office, Dr. Zilliacus and Professor Carleton Washburne, both of whom are valued personal friends, are educationists of international stature who have made outstanding contributions to the cause of New Education. It is a difficult thing to measure up to them. I should, however, like to take this opportunity to pay my tribute to their leadership and their great services in this field and to express the hope that their active association with this movement may long continue to inspire educational workers.

I hope you will not misunderstand me or consider it presumptuous if I speak of New Education to-day with reference to myself—as an instance of what it has meant and how it has developed in the life of one humble worker in this field. In tracing the course of my own intellectual orientation towards it, as it were, I might perhaps be able to throw some light on its general pattern of development. I returned to India, after completing my training in education, about thirty years ago. During this training I had made a study of many educational thinkers of the West—including the 'new educationists'—and had been specially influenced by the ideas of Professor Dewey. My first assignment in India was the training of teachers in a Graduate Training College which brought me in touch with problems of secondary education, and gave me an opportunity to share in the adventure of teaching, and to study its procedures and techniques as well as its objectives, from the point of view of the individual teacher and the individual child. I was forcibly struck by the uncreative drudgery and routine of formal teaching methods, by the divorce between the requirements of child psychology and the prescribed curricula and programmes and by the isolation of the school from the vibrant currents of community life. To think out and wrestle with these problems, I wrote *The School of the Future*, in which the main emphasis was on the freedom

and the dignity of the child, on the release of his creative impulses and on the re-orientation of the school environment and the methods of teacher training which they called for. I naturally pleaded for giving teachers something more than mere 'tricks of the trade'—a deeper insight into the meaning and purpose of education and the freedom to experiment with new ideas and techniques.

About the same time, I found myself increasingly attracted by the poetry and philosophy of a great Indian poet, Iqbal, not only because of the significance of his thought and the arresting beauty of his poetic style, but also because it seemed to me that what he had to say had great value and relevance for the work of education. He was not an educationist in the technical sense of the word at all. He had, however, made an incisive study of Western as well as Eastern philosophy—particularly Muslim philosophy—and was deeply interested in religion. Starting from this background, he devoted himself to a discussion of certain basic problems of human destiny, both in his poetry and in his philosophical writings. It was significant that, in many respects, he took up positions which are strangely reminiscent of 'new' educational thought at its best: the development of individuality as the highest objective of the life process, the creative rôle of the individual in life, the intimacy of the relationship between the individual and the culture-pattern of his community, the linkage of activity and knowledge, humanism—or respect for man as man, irrespective of his race, religion or colour—as the basis of all sound thinking and conduct, both individual and national, and the imperative need of harmonizing *Power*, which is the gift of Science and Technology, with *Vision*, which has inspired men of God with love and compassion and a sense of human kinship. Without subordinating Power to Vision, he argued, mankind could not create the good life and may quite conceivably fall a victim to Frankenstein monsters of its own creation . . . A careful study of Iqbal's thought brought home to me the significant truth

that 'New Education' is basically neither of the East nor of the West, neither the psychologist's fad nor the 'progressive' educationist's hallucination, but is essentially rooted in the deeper and nobler urges of human nature, to which psychology, sociology, biology, science, religion and ethics have all made their own characteristic contributions. *Iqbal's Educational Philosophy* was written as an attempt to present—somewhat inadequately—this inspiring vision of man and his destiny and Iqbal's assessment of the forces that stand in his way.

Meanwhile, India was marching forward in the political field, under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi, towards its destined tryst with Freedom. Gandhi made an abiding contribution in many—almost all—fields of national life. He also made a revolutionary impact on our educational system through his scheme of Basic Education, which made a courageous attempt to break down the walls that divide the school from the world outside. It rejected the tradition of book-ridden education, gave craft work an honoured and central place in the school, correlated the knowledge to be imparted to the child with the productive work in which he was engaged or with the study of his physical and social environment. It also sought to train children in the art of 'community living' and re-forged the bonds between school and social service. I became rather closely associated with this movement of Basic Education—both at the theoretical and practical level—and organized a large number of basic schools and training institutions—particularly in the States of Kashmir and Bombay. This administrative responsibility brought me into touch with a much larger number of teachers at all levels—primary, secondary and higher—and with the socio-economic and cultural conditions in the country. As I studied them with reference to educational needs and problems, the conviction steadily grew on me that good education could only be given in a good society and the impact of the school on the child is powerfully conditioned by the forces operating in the wider life of the nation and the world outside the school walls. I felt that my first approach to the educational problem—in the *School of the Future*—had been somewhat one-sided; it had perhaps placed too much emphasis on the individual and too little on the social order. So I tried to make peace with my new outlook by rewriting it as *Problems of*

Educational Reconstruction and presenting a more radical view of the individual-society issue in my *Education, Culture and the Social Order*. While still affirming unrepentantly the 'primacy' of the individual, I am convinced that no teacher worth the name can remain indifferent to the basic values and forces operating in the world outside. He must try to understand them and, through a wisely designed education, reinforce those that make for a humanized personality and a just social order.

Meanwhile, since 1945, opportunities have come my way to visit many countries and meet their distinguished educationists and other leaders of thought—in the United Kingdom, Australia, France, Switzerland, United States of America, China, Iraq, Sudan, Arabia and Unesco—that 'gallant little country' to which a charming lady gushingly referred in 1947! (The very instructive and pleasant visit to Australia, incidentally, was made as a member of an International Delegation sponsored by the New Education Fellowship.) As a result of these contacts and of what has been happening in the international field since the War, it has become increasingly clear to me that the problem of promoting genuine understanding amongst the peoples of the world should rank as a very high priority—not merely with statesmen and economists and scientists and members of parliaments, but also with all teachers—from the obscure and humble teacher in the little village school to head-line professors in the universities. If we cannot sow the seeds of understanding and charity and compassion in our educational institutions, if we cannot make our children and youth realize that the world of to-day is 'one-world' in which all the peoples must learn to live together amicably or they will perish miserably; that exclusive policies and national and social prejudices and hatred go ill in a world dominated by the Atom Bomb—if we cannot do so in our schools and colleges and educate the hearts as well as the minds for this new responsibility, mankind is well-nigh doomed. This theme has been developed in *Education for International Understanding* which was the main topic of my Australian lectures. Some of these ideas were also discussed in the lectures which I was privileged to give at certain American universities last winter. It has been a matter of some satisfaction to find that—even in a climate of political opinion which, till very recently, was dominated

by the fear and tensions generated by the War and the Atomic menace—educationists everywhere are conscious of the urgency of the situation, and that many of them favour what I might describe as a 'humanized' education and, within their limitations, are anxious to do what they can to inculcate the right ideals and values. 'Within their limitations'—because they cannot obviously go much beyond the public opinion of their country. The education of this public opinion is the joint responsibility of political leaders and creative thinkers all over the world.

And so we stand poised on the threshold of the Atomic Age, which calls for a new pattern of thinking and conduct—both on the individual and the national level. This offers us a very exacting challenge, perhaps a greater and more poignant challenge than man has ever faced before in his chequered history. The stakes are infinitely greater; the rewards of a successful adjustment to the situation are of a magnitude far beyond the dreams of avarice and the penalty of failure is equally dramatic. Man has come into the inheritance of 'Power Unlimited' which *can* raise him—but need *not* necessarily do so—to the stature of gods and house him in the mansion of the 'good life', the vision of which the best of men and women have always cherished. But he has not developed the spiritual strength or the intellectual resources to make proper use of this inheritance. It is here that you and I and millions like us—in fact, all who visualize, and hope for, a

better future—come in. In co-operation amongst nations, charity amongst groups, love amongst individuals and justice amongst all lies the key to the problem—in these and in a trained and critical intelligence which can understand and rightly assess the revolutionary impact of these new forces on our social and political thinking. Co-operation, charity, love—these are not new, twentieth-century slogans, but go back to the dawn of man's ethical conscience. They are words which have been hallowed by men like Plato and Buddha and Jesus and Mohammed and Lincoln and Gandhi and Tagore. But they have to be re-interpreted by every age in terms of its own needs and problems and to be translated into social, political and cultural institutions and relationships. They have to be woven into the fabric of our educational thought and to inspire our methods and curricula and training techniques so that men may learn not only to live together—'co-existence' is, after all, a rather colourless and uninspiring word—but to love one another, to appreciate whatever is good in others, to share one another's joys and sorrows and help one another over the hurdles which all have to cross, even though their nature and magnitude may differ. They must do all this, not only because there is no other road that leads to survival, but also because *that is the only right and decent thing to do*. May I suggest that this is the basic message of New Education which ultimately means good education?

AWARENESS, ACCEPTANCE AND ASSISTANCE IN NURSERY EDUCATION

Martha H. Chandler¹

AWARENESS seems to me to imply, first and foremost, general understanding: a background of knowledge acquired through reading, research, observation and discussion. General knowledge is a first condition of Awareness, and among the things we want to know, of course, in dealing with little children is, 'What are they like at the different age levels where we meet them?'

There are many ways of finding out general age level differences. One of the nicest I know of is watching the films that come from the studio of

the Canadian Film Board. I had a chance to see *The Terrible Twos and the Trusting Threes* in the Studio. These have been followed by *The Frustrating Fours and the Fascinating Fives* and *The Sociable Sixes to the Noisy Nines*. These 'ages and stages' available to us in movies are particularly interesting, because you actually see the same children who have lived in the Nursery School over a period of two years. Eighteen months is likely to be egotistical and resistant. The two-year old may be at one moment a very grown up person, and the next moment like the little boy who sat at the supper table and said, 'Feed me, Mommie, you know I am a very little boy.'

¹ Extracts from a speech given by Miss Martha H. Chandler of Boston, Mass., at a Dinner of the Nursery Education Association of Ontario, in Hamilton, Ont., March 20th, 1954.

Three-year olds show developing conscience—here are the children who are learning how to determine what is good and what is bad in your eyes. Are you going to help them find out? And then come the four-year olds. They are full of fun, absolutely refusing to do anything one moment, most co-operative the next. These four-year olds are a challenge to anybody. And then we have the five-year olds coming now more into focus, able to do things in a group, but still very much little people at times. Then come the six-year olds to whom, perhaps, we have done a great deal of harm all over the world because we have tended to expect too much of them; but we are learning more about them, finding out that here is an age full of body restlessness, when, to sit through long hours is particularly difficult. Here, then, are certain general tendencies, within which each individual develops in his own way.

But there are other things in general knowledge, other conceptions that can help our Awareness, such as the concept that optimal development can take place best when needs are satisfied. This, of course, is the reason for the practice of 'rooming in' in hospitals with new-born beside mother; the principle which makes us realize that the infant cannot learn patience by being made to cry till his next feeding. If we satisfy him at this stage, then he is more ready to go on with us at the next. This principle, of course, holds through the pre-school years to a point. We know that the two-year old who has his particular needs met satisfactorily is more likely to be a more satisfied and successful three-year old, and so it goes along the way. We know that a constant growth sequence takes place, but that it is modified in each individual by his own special personality. We cannot possibly expect two children in the same family to behave the same way, because they are not the same children. Each has met life in a slightly different situation.

So we know that no child grows in a vacuum, and we try to add to our general knowledge some knowledge about the different environments in which our children grow. We can do some of this through books and reading and first-hand experience. But we do need some help such as lies in a little book, *One God—The Ways We Worship Him*. It will give us quickly and in a most appreciative way some general principles about the three religions that are the most common in this country to-day, the Jewish, Catholic and

Protestant, so that we teachers who have pupils from these different groups will have a better understanding of the pupils' religious backgrounds. Such a book as *Father of the Man* helps us see the importance of environmental influences, as does *Children of the Cumberland*, which tells about children growing up in New York and in the Tennessee Mountains.

We find it very important to know something about the broad background of our children. Then having achieved some general principles, every one of us as a teacher needs to turn her attention to each individual child in her care, that she may be fully aware of what he is like. For instance, perhaps you have a child who is hard of hearing. What does it mean to him to wear a hearing aid? (I wear one, so I know about this handicap.) What do you do when the battery gives out, or what is worse, when you suddenly turn the volume control up by mistake and it shrieks in your ear? Do you know what happens to the child adjusting to a hearing aid? What do you know about reading lips? Are you aware that he can't read your lips unless you are facing him? What does this particular child need for this particular handicap?

Do you know what the children are really thinking? Do you listen? The *N.T.S. News*, published by the Nursery Training School of Boston, carried an article, 'I Hear the Children', by a teacher in a co-operative school. She heard them say—'Oo-oo, mud! I just love mud. Like chocolate pudding. But it doesn't taste like chocolate pudding. My mother doesn't like mud. I came home yesterday all muddy. She made me get in the bathtub even before I took my clothes off.' 'But you got all wet!' 'Oh no, there wasn't any water in the bathtub then. Not until I took off my coat and shoes and overalls and sweater and underwear.' 'You had all those things on in the bathtub?' 'Yes, it was awfully funny!'

Do you watch the children? Do you see the light in their eyes when something lovely happens? I remember watching children discovering a pink rose. A thoughtful teacher had taken it off the top of the piano and put it down on the closed keyboard so they could see it as they passed by. They were fascinated. Do you see him when he suddenly achieves the top of the slide for the first time: the little two-year old who stands as if he were on the top of the world looking around, then slides down and quickly

runs round to climb up again, step by step? You have to watch children to guess at the vividness of their experiencing.

Do you find out what each child can do? Clara, the little cerebral palsy child had just learned to crawl, by grabbing the hussocks of grass on the rough field where they had put her. She could just barely pull herself forward, although she was about nine years old. One would think this was a helpless child. But not intellectually! She was studying every inch of that ground, every blade of grass, every tiny insect. Later her mother or teacher would help her identify her discoveries in books and her field would be wider and she would be becoming a real naturalist.

Do you actually get inside a little child's feelings, and feel the way he feels? Here is the new child in school. On the surface it is easy to treat him as if he were naughty when he cries. But here he is, deserted by Mother; maybe as far as he knows she is never coming back. 'Why did she bring me here?' Can you make yourself feel the way he is feeling? Or study the ambitious aggressive child. What is he feeling inside? Here is a group of children constructively busy with a beautiful garage. Now the garage is finished and they are engrossed in their play with it, when the teacher says, 'It's time to put away the blocks.' It may be, but are you the kind of teacher who says, 'Time to put away the blocks!' or can you go over and be a garage man for a moment, and then can you in some way help them move on to the thing you have to do next without making the transition seem too abrupt? This quality of empathy seems to me one of the most important aspects of Awareness. A little girl of four got at it when she said to her mother, 'What is love?' and while her mother was thinking about an answer said, 'I think it must be something that comes out of God and comes into me.' Mothers often have this quality. A mother and a little girl were standing together on a crowded bus, and the child was enjoying her ride immensely until she became suddenly frightened by all the legs and skirts about her. She said, 'How will I ever get out?' And her mother said, 'I will go ahead and make a way for you.' It is so often the duty of the adult to go ahead and make a way.

There is one other thing I want to say about Awareness. It is involved not only with the focal point, which for us, of course, is the child, but also with the periphery. I wonder if we always

have eyes in the back of our head for the fringes as well as the centre of interest? There are so many breadths and depths and widths and heights of our profession. Our thoughts must encompass the parents, the administration, the student teachers, and all the other aspects of this field of ours which is so wide.

ACCEPTANCE depends on Awareness. Acceptance implies the open mind, the freedom from prejudice. We learn to accept and help our children accept many things; first of all, ourselves as we are and the children as they are. Each one of us knows something about what we can and can't do, and we learn to do something about what we can't do to supplement these lacks in ourselves. We also need to know ourselves, why we have this sort of tension with this sort of child, and be able to do something about accepting our children as they are, not just wishing they were different.

I am always interested when the Staff of a centre for working with emotionally disturbed children is looking for new workers. They are concerned first and foremost not with degrees, but with the quality of being able to accept children's behaviour without being thrown off balance. The other things come after, of course, the degrees and qualifications. When emotionally disturbed children throw tomato juice at you or have tantrums or do all the other things that make behaviour difficult, if you feel personally hurt or blame the children, you can't help them get over their difficulties.

Sometimes it helps when you can actually describe to a mother how her child tends to follow a certain behaviour pattern. Perhaps he seems to be an autistic child. These children tend to be more interested in things than people. As they grow up they are often brilliant with things mathematical and scientific. If you understand what his interests are, you can give him things to fulfil his interests, and at the same time try gradually to lead him to develop other sides of his nature. Then there is the 'high-drive' type, so full of nervous energy that he gets into difficulty all the time. He is usually a well set up young man. If he picks up mother's best vase, he is apt to drop it. He doesn't mean half the harm he does, but is always in difficulty! If we can accept him, realizing some of these characteristics, we can often help him to modify them.

As we accept children, we can help children accept themselves. Coming back to the physically handicapped child—this seems an important aspect of the help we can give such a child so that he will be better able to take his limitations in his stride. We can help the other children to appreciate his abilities. We can let his handicap be a natural part of him which we and he accept together. We can give help without over-protection and pity.

We need to learn to accept not only ourselves, other people and our children, but responsibilities and even hard tasks that come our way. We must say, 'Here is a situation. What can I do about it?' There is a saying about a person who actually faces difficulties bravely, 'She grasps her nettles.' If you don't grasp them, they sting. There is a story in Ruth Washburn's book *Children Know Their Friends*. A little boy she calls Tad came to school after moving around from place to place. He was not able to make friends easily, stood on the sidelines. He would go up to a group and say, 'Do you want to play with me?' 'No!' He would look hurt, then go off and play by himself. The teacher watched it, then said to herself, 'I don't think Tad is going to get in without some help.' So she did something about it: she accepted her responsibility. She thought, 'Who can help Tad? Zack, who had had trouble himself getting in last year. Now he is a leader among the children.' She said to Zack, 'You know Tad? Well, he is new in this school, as you were last year. Could we show him how to play with us?' Silence. But Zack had heard and he was thinking. Then the teacher called up Tad's mother and said, 'I think Tad needs just a little lift along the way.' The mother told her how hard it had been for him moving from place to place. The teacher said, 'Let Tad bring one of his most interesting mechanical toys to-morrow. Get him here fifteen minutes early. Don't tell him he is coming early, just get him here.' Then she called Zack's mother and said, 'Your boy can help me with a problem.' His mother was delighted. Then the teacher said, 'Send him to school fifteen minutes early. Don't tell him. He won't know, will he?' When the teacher got to school, there was Tad already busy in the sand box with a beautiful sand shovel, making roads. Zack arrived, stood behind Tad and watched, and then got a little red truck and pulled it up. It was just what Tad needed, and he

immediately started telling Zack what to do with it, and they became so involved they didn't know when the other children arrived. Zack finally said, 'Go away, I'm playing with Tad.' Half an hour later, Zack came to the teacher and said, 'Come see what we have built!' She brought the other children to see the beautiful road system. It helped. It didn't solve the whole problem, but it helped. A few days later, Zack came to his mother and said, 'Do you know who my best friend is? Tad. Can he come over to play with me?' The teacher had done something about it.

Then I think we need to accept truth as we see it. When something comes along and convinces us that this way is better than the way we have been doing it, it is up to us to accept it. New ideas come so thick and fast, it is very hard to keep up with them. It is very confusing. There is always something new and better coming along. When I trained in the same school in which I am now teaching, we would ask the mother of a new child to leave him and go home so the teacher could immediately get around to the business of getting the child used to his new surroundings without her. We know now that infinite harm may have been done by these methods. Now we ask the mother to stay with the child, and together they work out this new experience.

We need to accept other people naturally, whether or not they are different from ourselves, and to be able to help our children to do this too. We need to have happy experiences with children and teachers and other people of varying races and creeds. This will help us and our children not to have feelings of intolerance, but of acceptance and appreciation and genuine liking. We need to work out practical ways of building such positive attitudes in our nursery schools.

I am thinking of a school in a suburban area outside of Boston where the children had never met coloured people except as servants or porters. They talked about coloured people with disrespect. The teacher came to us and said, 'What can I do about it?' 'Why don't you take our coloured student out with you, introduce her as your friend, and let them get acquainted?' The student-teacher was interested in the whole problem and willing to deal objectively with any remarks made to her. That was several years ago. The children liked her immensely and she visited several times. Subsequently, that school asked if

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we had a coloured student to send to them as one of their regular student-teachers, and this was equally successful. I was very much pleased to learn recently that one of our leading coloured teachers had been appointed Director Teacher in one co-operative in a suburban area where there are no coloured children, and the parents were delighted. Surely her children will feel differently about coloured people. Perhaps we will have as easy an acceptance by these children as by the little girl this mother told about: 'I think it is going to be all right with my child. She never noticed that children were coloured or white. One day she suddenly said, "Mother, why are they dark?" This was my chance. "Well, Eva, your eyes are blue and mine are brown. Your hair is light and mine is dark. Your skin is light and theirs is dark. That is just the way it is." And it was accepted. I am sure it took, because two or three days later, she came running home from school and said, "The teacher said this or that" and I said, "The coloured teacher?", and she said, "Yes, the white coloured teacher."'

We need also to accept limits. We ourselves have to abide by rules, and help our children

abide by rules. We are teaching in an age which is putting a great deal of emphasis on permissive behaviour. We must realize that certain disciplines are necessary, fences—physical and social. 'Behind the protection of fences, a child is free to grow' once said Miss Abigail Eliot. 'Johnny, I know you want to kick me, but I can't let you kick me. Johnny, I can't let you break down the other children's house, but you can do *this*. You can bang these blocks down, but you can't break down these children's house.' Some of us are not yet convinced enough of this business that freedom exists only within limits. We need to help children see the limits. We do not necessarily have the same limits for each child, but we must help each child keep within the limits with which he is able to cope.

Our profession is one that goes on and on, with all its out-reaching of opportunity. As we see the on-going and out-reaching of teaching, we want this quality encouraged in every child, not stifled, as is sometimes the case.

MY third point is ASSISTANCE. Naturally, this is our whole field. Everything we are doing as teachers should come under this category. We are teaching no matter what we do. We teach all the time, because children are learning from the adult they are with. They may be learning things we don't intend to teach. We must watch that they get the real kind of assistance they merit.

Through our awareness, we know that our teaching must be geared to the individual. This is true of teaching of our young assistants and our student teachers. I heard Dr. Stratameyer give a talk not long ago in which she said, 'You can only act in the light of the meaning a situation has for you.'

You need to plan programmes so that the children have large blocks of time in which to use all the creative material we can provide for them; the salt dough, coloured chalks on wet paper, 'beautiful junk' or odds and ends, which may be converted into designs. Pamphlets such as *Formulas for Fun*, *What's What for Children*, *Nursery School Portfolio*, *The Teacher Sets the Stage*—all have creative ideas for programmes for our children.

Nursery School people need to think in terms of how their programme is going to progress. It must move on. You start with three-year olds, and end with four-year olds, and during the

year are teaching the same children with new capacities. Do we make our programme, challenged at all stages of the game, too hard at the beginning and too easy in the 'February spurt' when we have the disciplinary problems? or stimulating all the way through, keeping pace with developmental needs?

Sometimes, we must confess, some teachers are satisfied with the second best, and children should have the very best. For example, I go into school after school troubled by how many poor records are being played. I know it is hard to find good records for young children. But there are better records than those I hear in many schools. Another thing that bothers me is to have some teachers willing to read a poor story to the entire eager listening group. Suppose some child brings such a book to school eager to have it read. Couldn't you say, 'Johnny, you and I will look at your book together'?

Another plea is for charming-looking classrooms. Too many of us are satisfied with what we find. Many of us find very little that is charming, but rather drab places to work in.

This year I saw a most barren place transformed into a gay, attractive, functional nursery school with practically no money. It was a co-operative school, attended by the children of professors and students and there was very little money to spend. However, they had painted the orange crates. Their doll corner challenged any for ingenious devices.

Our teaching will reflect our own inner qualities. Enthusiasm, animation and zest for work catches on with the children. We want to give the best we have, not only to our children, but to the periphery. If we take the assistance the parents have to offer us, and give what we have to the parents, there will be a mutual co-operative effort for the good of the children.

Isn't this one step toward world co-operation? We want our children to be successful world citizens. Mr. and Mrs. L. K. Frank say in their book, *How to Help Your Child in School*, 'No child who is constantly being given understanding, patience and love, will ever be won over to a theory, a creed, a form of government that destroys the rights of human beings.'

ALL CHILDREN NEED TIME

M. Laelia Warburton, Head of one of the Special Classes run by the L.C.C.

Now that I have worked for five years in one of the Special Classes provided by the London County Council for emotionally disturbed children, one of the questions which most often strikes me is, whether those for whom these special classes cater are the only children who need the particular help which they offer.

Perhaps this can best be examined by looking at the needs of children as they come to light in these small groups, and also at the so-called normal child at play outside the school, where he unconsciously portrays his inner needs, and so finds a safety-valve for those needs.

Sand and water are part of the natural heritage of the child and their effect on him is potent. The boy, purposefully filling his bucket with sand, the older child surreptitiously tracing patterns in the sand with a stick or his finger, the adolescent boy or girl idly letting sand trickle through his or her fingers, or the boy or girl of any age gripping a mass of damp sand until it hardens like a lump of clay, then throwing it violently down on the ground until it disintegrates again,

all these activities can be observed either in the Special Classes for the maladjusted, or on the beaches and in the sand-pits provided by local authorities in parks and play-grounds.

All these activities are a daily occurrence, and all of us can remember the inner satisfaction they brought, but everyone does not recognize that these needs continue, long after the nursery and infant school years. Many people feel that as long as these needs have been provided for adequately in early childhood, the primary school child should be discouraged from such childish play and encouraged to turn his attention to the so-called serious business of learning—forgetting that this very business of learning is impossible unless the emotions of the child are free and can be freely expressed.

The need to construct and to destroy is a basic need, and as with all basic needs, unless some provision is made for its expression, the need is either stifled—for the time being—rearing its head in some ugly distorted form at a later stage, or else surreptitiously expressed with a feeling of

guilt or bravado, and thereby it takes on an exaggerated importance.

Weighing, measuring, balancing, comparing, arithmetical processes which many children find so tedious in school, are largely so because they seem too remote. The free access to sand and water, scales, and measuring vessels of all kinds quietly clarifies many of the baffling problems the child has to face in the junior school, and he develops a real number sense, achieved not through directed activity, but through direct experience. When a child experiences things in his own way, and in his own time, the experience is a full one, mentally, emotionally, and physically. When initiated from the outside in a pattern which is not the child's own, the experience is limited, incomplete.

The following case may be cited as an example of observed readjustment through the use of simple natural materials in the class.

An emotionally disturbed boy of twelve was referred to me on account of extreme diffidence, inability to concentrate and general backwardness in school subjects. When he came first to the class, he seemed unable to settle to anything, he wandered round the room, looking first at this thing and then at that; he picked up a paint brush, made a few splashes of colour on paper, and then roamed round to the sand tray, scooped up some sand in his hands, and let it fall back into the tray. A jig-saw puzzle, a model in meccano, were started, but soon discarded. Many things were tried, but nothing completed; this is a very common phase among the mal-adjusted, but a phase that has to be experienced and worked through, consciously and unconsciously, before the outer techniques of school subjects can be tackled. Therefore this boy was allowed complete freedom to try everything within his reach, and no criticism by word or look was made. He was merely encouraged in his experimentation, and through the presence of a non-criticizing grown-up, he gradually felt a sense of security in his search for the right instrument of release.

Looking at these children, it seems as if the emotionally disturbed child instinctively moves towards the thing which, given undisturbed time, will enable him to sort out his troubles and thus free himself. It was, however, some weeks before the boy made any attempt to settle down to an occupation of any kind; he was still suspicious of

everything, afraid of everything, yet longing to do something, but he dared not, for fear of failure. Slowly, as his feeling of security grew, his range of vision enlarged, and he became interested in the work of the other members of the group. He was attracted by some diagrams on the wall, the work of a boy attending another group. Bringing from a drawer some squares of coloured paper, he began to make similar diagrams for himself, folding and dividing, measuring and cutting the coloured pieces of paper into squares and circles, which he then stuck on to a sheet of plain paper. He continued this occupation for some time; completely absorbed in his self-chosen task, he arranged circles and half-circles, quarters, and eighths in an infinite variety of colour combinations. Obviously something was happening within him; a realization of his growing ability to settle down to achieve some result. The previously clouded face was clearing, the 'couldn't care less' attitude was beginning to break, a desire to know was expanding. It was now possible to help him, to explain to him some of the problems he had previously found impossible to grasp. On his own initiative, he repeated his work the next session, dividing, measuring, comparing, arranging, as if he needed to prove to himself again and again his capacity to grasp relationships.

But many people may say: 'Surely all this could have been hastened if the teacher had directed his activity from the beginning, and shown him how to work out these problems, instead of allowing him to stumble upon the idea on his own.' But real growth and real understanding come about only through first-hand experience and observation, and the teacher must withhold inopportune instruction. To try and hasten growth, or to force the pace, may result in apparent rapid progress, but this is superficial progress, and not a development from within the child. Intense forcing may result in pages of correct sums, correct spelling, and the memorizing of undigested material, but unless the boy or girl is able to assimilate it, his mind merely becomes cluttered up with undigested material, and this in time prevents clear thinking and accurate observation.

The aim in dealing with children in the Special Classes is not that they should remember facts acquired by others, but that they should be satisfied in pursuing their own research, and so

acquire facts for themselves. The boy in question was an example of retarded development, caused largely through an attempt to force the pace, in order that he should fit into the pattern artificially made by our system of education. Interference with the boy's own rate of development had caused such an emotional block that progress was practically impossible.

Maladjustment and educational retardation are so closely linked that it is almost impossible to separate them they are indeed, in many cases, two aspects of the same problem. Retardation in school subjects sooner or later brings about some form of maladjustment, and emotional disturbance undoubtedly hinders development, and prevents a boy or girl from responding to his or her environment in what is regarded as the normal way.

Another case which was referred to the class recently illustrates the close link between educational retardation and maladjustment. A boy of fourteen was admitted to the group on account of inability to learn to read. All through the infant and junior school he had toiled and struggled in his endeavour to master the technique of reading; but as he passed from class to class, and his school-mates progressed from book to book, he dropped behind further and further, and by the time he had reached the secondary school the depression, brought about by his inability to learn to read, had spread over to other subjects, until it almost engulfed him. His grasp of arithmetic, which had been average previously, began to suffer, and he gradually withdrew into himself. He told me later, that at night, when he went to bed, he sat up with earphones, searching for something to listen to, in order, as he put it, 'not to think'. So all-encompassing had his depression become, by the time he reached the group at the age of fourteen, that it was with great difficulty that he was able to pull himself out of this state, and begin to try once again to look at the printed word. 'It's no use; it's too late; I'll never make it', was the refrain. Slowly and painfully, however, as he realized that another form of help was being offered to him, he tried to face a new beginning. He opened an elementary reader and saw that there were a few words which he could read. Haltingly he started, looking up quickly to make sure that no one was laughing at him. He realized that the others in the group were tackling their

problems too, and that he could now go on without fear of ridicule. The back of the problem was broken, and soon his reading vocabulary began to grow. After a time he could recognize a hundred words, so why not two hundred? At fifteen he left school, took a job, and on his own initiative, attended an evening class for backward readers. This boy's backwardness in one subject had so disturbed him emotionally that it had blotted out the knowledge he had previously acquired in other subjects, therefore the breaking of the vicious circle was of supreme importance in his development.

Because a child has reached his seventh birthday, and is therefore, according to our present system of education, due to pass into the junior school, it does not mean that automatically he ceases to be interested in certain forms of activity, or that because his reading age is equal to his chronological age, his emotional development is necessarily at the same level. The non-recognition of this fact, and therefore the non-provision of the continued basic equipment in the junior school of such things as sand, water, bricks, and clay, frequently leads to emotional disturbance, mental retardation, and behaviour problems of all kinds. Work with small groups of maladjusted or emotionally disturbed children of junior and secondary age, shows the absolute need of children of all ages for materials as near to nature as possible, and the freedom to use them according to their own special needs, as the needs arise.

Organized activity and pre-arranged instruction play their part in the development of the child but, for the releasing of potentiality, close and uninhibited contact with the basic constituents of the earth must be freely experienced.

When the hands of a child are occupied, the tensions within are eased; probably it is a similar impulse which makes men and women move their pencils on any spare surface to 'doodle' at conferences or while they are waiting for a tiresome 'phone call. This 'doodling' by the adult is accepted without comment, yet many people expect and even demand a physical immobility from children without ever imagining the degree of integration necessary. 'Stop fidgetting!' 'Put that pencil down!' such sharply given orders may clamp down and in some cases prevent the very thing the adult is asking for—'intelligent listening'.

Careful observation of boys and girls in these small groups (ages ranging from six to fourteen) has made me realize the desperate need of children to work through processes, and experiment with materials so as to acquire knowledge they have been 'taught' in school, but which they have not fully absorbed. Many times a boy or girl has discovered in the cupboards the same reading, arithmetic, geography and history books which they use at school. The use of the familiar in another setting, this opportunity to 'go over' alone, almost in secret, or with the invited help of an adult, is a very real need.

Here is yet another example. Roger was a boy of thirteen, of average intelligence, who for some reason had been quite unable to grasp decimals. This inability distressed both the boy and his parents. They simply could not understand how it was that their offspring lacked the ability to grasp anything. Pressure and criticism in the home and school frayed his nerves, and made his inability more and more apparent. The growing disturbance led to his admittance to the class. After a few preliminary sessions, in which he occupied himself in drawing, painting, weighing, and measuring, filling and refilling many different kinds of vessels with water, he picked up a sum book and turned to the dreaded decimals. We talked about arithmetic in general. He then looked at the arithmetic book, remarking, 'Those are the sums, just the very sums he (the teacher) was working out on the blackboard.' The boy then picked up some paper and started to write down the sums. I fetched the answer book and laid it by his side. 'The teacher always has the answer book at school,' he remarked. 'Yes,' I replied, 'but now you have the answer book as well. Maybe it will help you. Use it and see how you get on.' As the boy started to work, it became obvious that he had unconsciously absorbed much of what his teacher had been demonstrating on the board, but in his fear of not getting his sums right, he had become more and more confused. For two hours this boy sat alone, working out the sums, checking his answers, correcting them where necessary. At last he said, 'You set me some sums, see if I can do them without looking up the answers.' Some sums were set; he worked at them unaided. I corrected them. 'All right, first time. You've done well, Roger.' He smiled triumphantly. 'I've got it. I know what he's driving at now.'

He continued to attend the group for some time, in order that his confidence should become established, helping other children with their problems. Never again did he open his arithmetic book in the group, and when asked how he was getting along at school, replied, 'Splendidly, the teacher never jaws me now!'

This case illustrates how some difficulties in school work can be overcome comparatively easily, provided the child is given opportunities of solving his problems in a way individual to himself. There are times when the sheer presence of large numbers hinders the child's development, when he needs to withdraw from close contact with others. There are other times when a more intimate atmosphere than is possible in an average classroom, is necessary. These Special Classes provide opportunities for both these stages or phases. Phases they are, which the majority of normal children pass through, but phases which, if not catered for, can quite easily be the cause of much difficulty in later years, and hinder future development. If a phase is recognized as a phase, and provided for at the time of its inception, it can be passed through; and once its components are absorbed or dispersed, the child can then go on to the next phase of development. If the phase is regarded as an abnormality, it can become so, and gather round itself a weight of complications which may hamper the child for an entire lifetime.

Up to now, we have received in the Special Class children who had already developed features which teachers or the psychiatrist regarded as abnormal; perhaps in future it may be possible to detect difficulties at an earlier stage, and so help the child to work out a phase of development as an entirely normal part of his growth.

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COMPETE OR CO-OPERATE?

A. A. Bloom, Late Headmaster of St.-George-in-the-East L.C.C. Secondary School, Stepney, London

WHEN talking or writing about St. George-in-the-East Secondary School, I have found it hard to dispel the impression, gained particularly by overseas visitors, that, with us, 'work' does not matter. Because no official standards are imposed from above, because we ourselves set no prescribed standards of attainment and have no detailed schemes of work, and because I never give an analysis of a typical day spent by the children at school—life being much too individual and varied to make this possible—it seems to be felt that we have little respect for knowledge and no aim to fit our children for their work-a-day world.

It is a vital part of our belief that the *modus vivendi* claims paramount importance. We are convinced that not only must the overall school pattern—the democratic way of living—precede all planning, but that it proclaims the main purpose of education in a democracy. Our aim is that our children shall learn to live creatively, not for themselves alone, but also for their community. 'Freedom', said Dr. Jaime Torres Bodet at a recent Public Education Conference, 'is only an instrument for a richer development of man, for which he must be a member of a community.' For the child to learn this art of living he must actually live the implied experiences. Lessons about co-operation or tolerance or injustice will not form right attitudes nor change wrong ones. By living experiences within the community the child learns; the fuller and deeper the comprehension of the experiences the more they 'cut into' the fibre of his being and become an integral part of his self. This way of living established, the 'work' can, with understanding guidance from the staff, be left to achieve itself.

(Of course, the child's reactions to this environment will depend in large measure on his inner drives and conflicts, of which his objective behaviour is only a symptom. Often he makes emotional mistakes which teachers misconstrue as laziness or rudeness or disobedience, and because of this misunderstanding they are inclined to administer punishment for these mistakes

while being tolerant of intellectual errors made by the child. And yet, as well punish him for coming out in spots instead of treating the cause of the ailment as punish him for an emotional outburst instead of searching for the motive behind it.)

Within the free, friendly and secure environment that has been evolved, the child's initiative is released and he is eager to express himself and to fulfil himself in an ever-increasingly social way. He may not work so 'hard' as when he is being enticed by rewards or driven by punishments, but he will work 'well': the important difference between these two attitudes needs no elaboration. Working well, he will go forward at his own pace, adventuring towards an awareness that is at once curious and dynamic. He will set his own standards and raise them, and he does not allow himself 'to be stranded upon the moveless sterility of his past achievements'. Because the compulsion—together with the required discipline—comes from within the child, 'work' is no longer an *imposition*; it has become an *exposition*, something 'put out', willingly and freely, by himself. Perhaps it then ceases to be work and becomes creation. If this be so—and I believe it is—Grammar Schools need have no qualms about 'results' if they adopt a social *milieu* such as we at St. George-in-the-East have developed.

Thus, it is not that we undervalue knowledge, but that we value more the attitude towards the acquisition of knowledge. And that purposeful attitude comes, we believe, from the heightened awareness springing from dynamic living in a community unhampered by the complications and disharmonies that the introduction of external stimuli inevitably produces. Many people, I feel, find it difficult to comprehend a life situation devoid of the competitive element. True it is that modern civilization has been built on competition as an essential driving force, but the present state of society can hardly be considered either as a good advertisement for competition or as a justification for its continuance. In fact, peoples are seeking in a growing social consciousness a new spur to replace the existing incentives, for these have noticeably failed in a society where the fear of unemployment no longer wields its

¹ This is one of several articles which Mr. Bloom contributed to *The New Era* (Vol. 30, No. 8) and we reprint it as a tribute to his memory.—Ed

grinding power. Competition is not inherent in the human make-up; it is the result of conditioning from earliest childhood. What does competition, at home or in schools, extract from children that, in right surroundings, they are not ready—and anxious—to give voluntarily? To rouse the competitive spirit may make easier the teacher's life, but, in setting a false pace to action and a specious emphasis on strife, it must make more complex the child's living. In one breath you say, 'The first one to finish a piece of work will go home early,' or, 'See if the girls can beat the boys,' and in the next breath you talk eloquently about helping lame dogs over stiles or working together for the common good. How can children reconcile the opposing concepts of competing *against* and co-operating *with*? Do you help your brother over one stile and push him away at the next? If our aim in education is to learn right living, and the means is by living aright, then we can achieve our purpose only by ensuring that, as far as is possible, the child's experiences within the ambit of the school are cumulatively harmonious.

Besides, children are delightfully alive when they are creating something and do not want to be spurred on by artificial means. As Ernest Raymond says: 'It is another remarkable proof of the dignity for which man was designed that the supreme bliss of creation is not won until it is disinterested creation . . . and we learn to make the thing for its own sake.' Children can—and in a conducive school climate want to—attain this bliss. Why bemuse them with contrary doctrines and deprive them of this ineffable joy? Let them go on creating from all that is within them and through their specific communal experiences so that, undismayed by carrots or goads, they may come to realize the self that is theirs and respect the self that is their neighbour's. And, because there are neither carrots nor goads, there will be no donkeys, for when children are treated as we would have them be, they tend to reach out accordingly. Perhaps what is needed most of all by teachers is a larger faith in the natural fineness of the child and in his inner potential.

I recall the story of the boy in a primary school where work was work and there was little time for play, since the sole aim of the school was to gain as many 'successes' as possible at the annual common entrance examination for Grammar Schools. John was one of the many who had

left the joyously free and friendly security of the infant school for this forcing-ground. Having suffered for four years he sat for the test. That night he undressed as usual, got into his pyjamas, knelt beside his bed to say his usual prayer and then added another: 'Please God, make Brussels the capital of Spain.' The anguish behind this plea is as indescribable as it must have been unbearable. I am sure that we, at St. George-in-the-East, have found a better way of school life, a way—let me insist from my own careful observation—that will not only produce results in work commensurate with the potential of each child, but will give to each child the poise and the friendliness and the confidence that are the appanage of those who are emotionally stable.

Finally, I must repeat that ours is a State school and that what we have achieved has been done within the orbit of the State system of education. I underline this not because we expect, as a consequence, sympathetic consideration, but in order to assure those many hesitant folk working under similar conditions that, within the framework of State education and despite the limitations of space, staff and substance, progressive education is possible. It may well be that, because of these limitations, the need for pioneers is the more intense.

Mr. A. A. Bloom

Mr. Alexander Abraham Bloom, headmaster of St. George-in-the-East School, Stepney, who died on Tuesday, 20th September, was a schoolmaster of unorthodox ideas who managed to carry out a highly individual experiment in a local authority school. He was born in London on 1st March, 1895, and was educated there, taking an honours degree in French at King's College, and his professional training at the Islington Training College.

After many years of quite orthodox school mastering he was appointed headmaster of St. George-in-the-East in October, 1945, with 260 boys and girls from neighbouring primary schools and 10 members of staff, most of them unknown to each other and hardly any of whom he knew. What he did know was Stepney, with its bomb ruins and overcrowded homes and tenements and its unusual medley of tongues and peoples. He saw no point in starting an ordinary school in that particular place and year. Instead, he designed one in great detail to meet the social and emotional needs of his particular adolescents. He did

not believe that gradualness or a piecemeal reform would meet those needs, and he himself laid down to his staff the school aim: the establishment of a community to which each child should contribute from his own growing confidence and competence, and in which his contribution would be spontaneous, not the by-product of regimentation, punishment, reward, or competition.

Not many of his fellow headmasters, not even all his friends, agreed with the extreme stand which Mr. Bloom took against coercion, but he certainly devised practical situations and highly realistic means of carrying out the daily organization of the school, which fully laid open for our consideration his own view of how adolescents

best learn to live and to act as human beings. St. George-in-the-East was better known to our overseas visitors as a great educational experiment than it is to most British educationists.

His work was so quiet that it can never be fully assessed. His children, unlike those of a great public school, are not likely to make their mark in the world and so bring him posthumous renown, but they do go out into a variety of work far beyond the traditional tailoring of Stepney. They have a good record of job holding and a far lower delinquency rate than their local average. And they will perhaps be gentler and more loving parents because of Mr. Bloom's fatherliness.

By kind permission.

THE DYNAMICS OF THE CLASSROOM SITUATION¹

E. L. Herbert, Department of Education, University of Manchester

THE fact that all adults have gone through school and so experienced the classroom situation tends to make us blind to its exceptional nature in comparison with most human situations. Yet its complicated pattern is a unique one. It presents us with the picture of one adult individual in daily face-to-face relationship with a large group of children who are not present of their own free will. No other situation contains all these factors. The nearest comparable ones are, perhaps, a public lecture or a political meeting, but these hold a most important and revealing difference from the classroom situation: the meeting is presided over by a chairman whose rôle is a protective one. He has *to keep the audience in order*, leaving the speaker free to attend solely to the content of his speech. When questions are allowed the chairman has power to rule them out of order, that is to prevent unsuitable, non-pertinent questions.

The precautions taken in such cases throw light on the main difficulty of the teacher's situation, for he has to fill a double rôle; he must both *teach* and *keep order*. The two rôles are clearly interconnected, for the second depends on the emotional relationship without which no teaching can be effective. If the positive emotional relationship which we might provisionally call *sympathy* is

disrupted, teaching goes by the board while emotion takes over in a wild attempt to bring back conditions in which it can take place. This can be illustrated by observing the situation in which the class adopts a defiant and impertinent attitude to the teacher. The latter's immediate reaction is the wish to punish. Defiance is felt as an attack; retaliation appears to be legitimate self-defence. If the class persists so does the teacher, to the great detriment of the teaching process.

Conversely, if the teaching is bad, sympathy is affected, the class becomes inattentive and parts company with the teacher. At this point the teacher intervenes more or less severely to establish order, the frustrated class resorts either to defiance or to apparent submissiveness and once more the learning of the subject matter is put aside. Yet the protagonists have a common aim, for the teacher's wish to teach is matched by the children's wish to learn. Why does this aim get lost in such situations?

What must be emphasized is that the classroom situation is a two-way one. Necessarily, educational psychology has up to now very properly concentrated on the child, first as an individual and lately—I am thinking particularly of the work of Lewin, Lippitt and White on *the Social Climates of Children's Groups*—on the class of children to be taught. The time has now come to pay greater attention to the other partner in the classroom, the teacher.

¹ This is a chapter from Mrs. Herbert's book (in preparation), *Beyond the Direct Method*, which deals largely with the teaching of Modern Languages but has an important section on the classroom situation. The substance of this chapter was read as a paper to the Congress of Applied Psychology, London, 18th-23rd July, 1955.

The most important difference between the two partners lies in the fact that the children are supported by the presence of their equals, whereas the staff group to which the teacher belongs is absent from the classroom. He is an isolated individual as far as his equals are concerned, and he faces a united and homogeneous group. Such a situation is always apt to produce anxiety. That he is thought not to need the protection of a second person—the equivalent of the chairman—to keep order is due to the difference in age between his audience and himself. He is dealing with children over whom he was, until fairly recently, considered to have absolute authority, at least within the walls of the classroom. This authority was a compensation for his isolation and could keep anxiety at bay. Hence the existence of the age-old *stereotypes* of the authoritarian teacher and the obedient pupil. Since teaching cannot take place unless there is order, any form of disobedient behaviour challenges this order and so becomes a threat to the stereotype. It is remarkable that 'insolent' and 'impertinent', the two adjectives most commonly used in describing the behaviour of rebellious pupils mean nothing more etymologically than 'unusual' or 'unsuitable'. The 'usual', conforming pupil is the obedient one.

If anyone were tempted to think that these stereotypes are a thing of the past the most casual observation of a group of children 'playing school' would furnish ample evidence of their survival. In such games the teacher is always a bully trying to force unruly children into obedience. Indeed there is collusion between children and adults on this point: the stereotypes are recognized equally by both. They are not fabricated by either teachers or pupils, they are 'given' by tradition through the various culture groups to which all individuals belong or have belonged—such as the country, the family, the school and the church. They can be said to be *group phantasies* far removed from the reality situation of the classroom. Indeed, so unreal are they that few teachers would openly confess to a belief in them. Modern educational psychology, with its emphasis on the necessity to give children freedom, would make such a statement unacceptable in our day. Yet in moments of crisis our behaviour is often based on a tacit and unrecognized acceptance of them. It requires a conscious effort for a teacher not to retaliate by scolding or punishment in the face of impertinent behaviour on the part of a child.

Similarly it is rare for a class not to be made aggressive by unreasonable demands on the part of the teacher whether the aggression is open or repressed. In other words, the stereotypes, born though they are of shared membership of groups, divide the classroom instead of uniting it.

The reason is not far to seek as soon as we realize that they are hierarchical stereotypes: they posit superior and inferior individuals. Since there is in us all a desire for self-assertion the rôle of the superior individual is one that we are anxious to play, but on the other hand, our equally natural desire to belong to a group makes us accept its standards even if they assign to us an inferior position as long as there is a valid reason to accept the authority of the leader. His superiority will not be challenged if it seems justified. It behoves us, therefore, to examine what the superiority of the teacher is based upon. The most unchallengeable factor is his *seniority*: he is older than the children and therefore he has experience over and above the kind of experience he has in common with them. But this applies to every adult, including parents, yet it does not make every adult into a teacher. The second factor is the *specific knowledge and training* he has received in order to be able to play the teacher rôle. However, these two qualifications alone are not sufficient; he must, in addition, be *placed and supported in this rôle* by a superior authority, the school and indeed the whole society of which he is the delegate. These conditions together entitle him to be a teacher, but they do not necessarily make him a good disciplinarian. This distinction must be earned by what the manuals call vaguely 'the personality of the teacher', i.e. his human qualities.

Group psychology helps us to fill the picture a little better if, instead of asking the question, 'what qualities make a good teacher?' we change it to 'what qualities make a teacher a good group leader?' For we are now able to realize that the teacher, though superior to his class as far as the three above conditions are fulfilled, is nevertheless a member of the group he has to lead and share its reactions. Thus his own feelings, if he is able to recognize them, are a clue to the feelings of the class. If, for instance, he feels bored by the work it is a safe guess that the class is bored too; unfortunately, the tendency is to place the responsibility for the boredom on the children's idleness or stupidity, which dispenses one from taking

steps to alter the situation by a change of approach. The unconscious acceptance of the stereotypes separates the teacher from the members of the class in that they seem to make him 'superior' in every respect.

Yet, pupils and teacher have had similar experiences. The teacher has lived at home and in school as a child, but as it is often said against him 'he seems to have forgotten his own childhood'. Indeed, we begin to perceive that common qualities and common experience need to be forgotten if the stereotypes are to be preserved in their extreme form. The most enlightened teachers feel at least temporarily the need to save them when they are menaced, hence the pain produced by the behaviour of the insolent pupil which seems to deprive them of all their superiority. We can surmount the shock and behave in a rational way if we are sufficiently free from anxiety to be aware of the real situation, that is if, through the recognition of the human field which we share with our pupils, we can identify ourselves with them and so accept the limits of our superiority. We shall still try to regain order so that we may fulfil our teaching rôle—not for the purpose of establishing our overall superiority. The difference in aim will result in a different disciplinary method, one that has every chance of being successful because the identification of the teacher with his pupils has for its counterpart the children's capacity to identify themselves with him. His wish to teach them is matched by their wish to be taught as long as he has something acceptable to give them and does not demand excessive payment for it.

The following 'case histories' from my own experiences may throw light on the process. In both cases I made deliberate use of identification with my classes in order to change their negative attitude to learning into a positive one.

The first class consisted of adolescent girls of 14-15 years of age in the year preceding the—then—School Certificate examination. This class was a typical difficult middle school one. They were the black sheep of the school. They were described as selfish and unco-operative, mainly interested in dress and in boys and utterly stupid. Every newcomer to the staff was warned about them by her colleagues and sympathized with if she had to teach them. Young new mistresses were advised to 'keep them under' as much as possible and 'to stand no nonsense' from them.

It fell to my lot to be their form mistress in the fourth year of their course. They had by contract to remain in school till the age of 16 and they would encounter the School Certificate hurdle at the end of their fifth year. My job was to teach them French; in addition there

was one period a week in which I could do what I liked with them.

The situation seemed hopeless. I found that my predecessor had not exaggerated when she said they knew no French, for indeed they could produce none, not even the present tense of *avoir*, much less any correct sentence. Nevertheless they did not appear to me to be unintelligent and I decided to regard their ignorance of a subject they had studied for three years as a *symptom* and to try to find—and to treat—the underlying causes of it.

I had not been misinformed about their attitude either. They were indeed interested in dress, in their looks, and in attracting men. Opportunity to observe the latter tendency was not lacking since—this took place during the War—American troops had been billeted in a building exactly opposite the school playground. I recognized that this interest was natural in girls of their age. What was worrying was their lack of control and the disregard not only of school rules but of their fellow pupils' standards. The 'group' was totally ignored: they incurred the dislike of all its members, girls and staff, and formed an 'isolate' subgroup.

It seemed to me that their bad intellectual record was connected with this dissident behaviour and I decided to work on the hypothesis that finding themselves unable to reach the intellectual standards of the school they attempted to shine in the only way they could. In other words, if they could not gain any success as schoolgirls they were going to gain it as adult young women. This was soon made almost explicit by them when they repeatedly stated their wish to leave school as soon as possible. They even expressed envy of elementary school leavers of 14 who, because they did not wear school uniforms, were regarded as 'grown up'.

If my hypothesis was correct any progress they might achieve in their studies should help them to regain self-respect through feeling worthy members of the school and so teach them to control their instinctual wishes.

Uniform was not imposed inside the school except on ceremonial occasions, but it had been suggested that they should be made to wear it as a punishment. I asked for and obtained a reprieve, for I felt that such a punishment would only make them more defiant, since it would increase their feeling of being treated as children. After this I set to work to make them learn some French. I told them that I knew they found it difficult and I outlined the restricted aim I hoped to achieve: teaching them to speak, read and write a little. Needless to say, it was an uphill task for I was up against their refusal to learn in their passive and negative attitude. Observing them one day, I said: 'You sit there as if you were telling me: we are too stupid, you can't teach us anything. Very well, I just do not believe in your stupidity. You only prefer to be thought stupid to having to make an effort.' This calling of their bluff—the recognition that they were in collusion with the school's bad opinion of them—had a magic effect. No one until then had told them they were *not* stupid. I meant it and they knew that I did. The pleasure in this enabled them to make an effort and at the end of three weeks all but two of the 30 girls in the class passed through a very elementary and thoroughly prepared test. The news was received with a mood of elation and teaching them almost ceased to be a problem until one day I was able to say spontaneously to them: 'I do not know how you feel, but I am very happy teaching you now, though I admit that I used to be terribly bored at first.' We compared impressions and they

discovered that they too enjoyed the lessons. Meanwhile in the 'form' period I made use of the interest in dress I had in common with them and showed them French fashion papers. We discussed taste, we discussed boys' schools, boys' attitudes, dancing, and passed on to more serious subjects such as reading and films. We found a good deal we agreed on. At the same time the rate of their progress in French was accelerated for the repressed knowledge of the first three years gradually reappeared.

Naturally this stage, though necessary as part of the cure, could not be prolonged indefinitely, for they were becoming completely dependent on me and there remained the problem of their being restored into the school group. Towards the end of the first term I began to feel that the progress they had made had removed an important obstacle to this, but there was the danger that they might regard me as an ally *against* the school, which would reinforce their isolated status. I decided to take the first opportunity—which soon came—to point out that my identification with them was not complete and that in some respects I shared the school's attitude. The school was at the time working for a building fund towards which this form had so far done nothing. They talked of a play produced by their two contemporary forms and remarked bitterly that they had not been asked to join in. 'Of course, they don't like us, they say we are selfish.' At this point, I interrupted and said, 'But aren't you?' There was a dead silence until I explained that I really thought they had been and had taken no interest in school activities, so it was no wonder that the others ignored them. There was a long discussion, the outcome of which was that they organized a sale of work a few weeks later and made a handsome profit towards the building fund.

Once they were thus reintegrated into the school, their work steadily improved in all subjects and they made a very good show in the School Certificate examination the following year. One of them went on to the University two years later.

Lest it might be thought that methods such as I have just described are of value with the poorer pupils only I want now to give an account of another class of girls of the same age whose attitude, while it was of a different kind, also prevented them from making progress in certain subjects and from playing their full part in the life of the school. As I was not their form mistress I did not have a full opportunity to deal with their social attitude, but had to concentrate on their progress in French.

This was an 'A' form of very high ability. They did brilliantly at one subject—the one taken by their form mistress who thought very well of them and would not hear a word against them. She and they formed a close 'isolate' group within the school community. In the eyes of the rest of the staff, however, they were unbearably conceited and it was everybody's endeavour to 'bring them down a peg'. They were constantly told that they were not so intelligent as they and their form mistress imagined. Their lack of interest in games and other school activities was deeply resented and they were branded with the most damning epithet in an English school: they were 'highbrow'.

When I began to teach them French I found that they had not the slightest interest in the subject and, in fact, knew very little. On the other hand I recognized that they were indeed extremely intelligent, so that they rightly resented and disbelieved—they had the support of their form mistress in this—all statements to the contrary.

It so happened that I, too, had often been teased in the staff room for being 'highbrow'. Here then was something I had in common with them, and I decided to make use of it.

I proceeded to use one of the five weekly lessons to give them a 'background' to their French studies by talking to them about French literature, art and philosophy on a very high level. We had lengthy arguments on many subjects in which I did not spare their intellect. They were fairly aggressive and enjoyed this as well as the exercise for their minds and they grew more and more interested. As time went on they learnt to admit ignorance and allowed themselves to be beaten with good grace in discussion. At the same time I took care in other more humdrum lessons to teach them in a more adult way than had been used with them hitherto. Grammar was taught on scientific lines, so were phonetics and intonation. I often referred to linguistic laws or theories. Where reading was concerned I took care to deal with texts of literary value and tried to develop their aesthetic appreciation. Translation was a means of recognizing style both in English and in French, and oral work—verse and prose reading—was used in this way too. They reached a very high standard in the subject and their attitude in the classroom certainly changed: they became more modest and seemed to acquire a more correct and reasonable view of their own ability. Although I think that their general attitude improved also, I had not enough opportunity to observe it as I left the school at the end of the year.

Teachers have different attitudes to children and to adolescents and this perhaps throws light on the real meaning of the dependence which is the pattern imposed upon the class and accepted by it under certain conditions. Our early human experience of dependence is based upon the demand for love. We know that the infant who is completely dependent on its mother feels her absence as a withdrawal of her love. Later the toddler and the child identify themselves with her and learn to obey her in order to keep her love, and this attitude is transferred to the teacher when the child goes to school. Thus dependence is accepted as long as it is equated with love from mother or teacher. Conversely, the adult feels this dependence as a sign of the child's love for him. Hence the parent's dismay when his child begins to prefer the company of other people to his own. The parental, protective instinct plays enough part in the teacher's choice of his profession to make him want to keep the children's love. The teacher, however, is *not* a parent; he has a specific rôle of which both the children and himself are aware: he must be able to teach his

pupils through the satisfaction of their interests. Interest is intimately connected with the wish to acquire new powers. As long as the teaching is such that the pupils are aware of gaining the power of doing something they were unable to do before, however trivial this may be, they feel they are growing up and they continue to accept a dependent state which they equate with love on the part of the teacher. Herein lies the fundamental psychological difference between the parent and the teacher. The equation,

dependence \longleftrightarrow love

of the parent-child relationship changes with regard to the teacher pupil relationship to

dependence $\xrightarrow{\text{love}}$ learning

Without the last of these factors both love and dependence disappear.¹ The children lose interest and the discipline of the class is disturbed, a state of affairs that can occur at all stages of school life. With the advent of adolescence the individual wants to experiment with life more and more independently, but he is still loath to lose the love his earlier dependence gave him. In Western society with its long period of schooling and the retarding of sex life he finds himself in danger of foregoing it with every act of independence—hence the defiant attitude to all adults who repress him or even appear to do so. More and more the discipline of the classroom is related to the usefulness of the teaching according to the adolescent's standards of adulthood. Lesser dependence often amounting to open rebellion is unconsciously equated with dislike of the teacher and with the fear of retaliation from him. All adults who try to repress the adolescent without giving him compensation become objects of dislike and are therefore regarded as hostile. Parents, according to the above equation can give the compensation of love in spite of bad—i.e. independent—behaviour. From the teacher the compensation

¹ In the terms used by Bion in his series of articles on 'Experience in Groups' in *Human Relations* (Vols. I, 3, 4; II, 1, 4; III, 1, 4; IV, 3) it can be said that, whenever there is trouble in the classroom the basic assumption 'dependence' changes to another pattern, the basic assumption 'fight-flight', that is the class either begins to fight the teacher or it shows its hostility by being inattentive without being openly aggressive—it runs away from the task. In both cases the result is to isolate the teacher.

Many other patterns can occur. The rebellion may be expressed by one defiant individual, to which the rest of the class may react in one of two ways. If it accepts the defiant pupil as a rival leader, the teacher is once more isolated; if it rejects him the rebel is isolated. Thus, in either case the group is disrupted, since it is deprived of one of its members.

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must take the form of successful learning: he must help his pupils to gain the knowledge which will open the way to adulthood. In terms of Group Dynamics it can be said that the group—the class—can be preserved only so long as the teacher can keep the confidence—i.e. the love—of his pupils by giving them knowledge, the sign of his love for them. This is the meaning of the word 'sympathy', the common aim in the classroom situation, where the teacher finds it desirable to give knowledge and the pupils to accept it, thanks to the two-way identification process. All problems of class discipline can be accounted for by this necessity. Again, sub-grouping may occur in various forms. Whatever the nature of the disruption, the problem for the teacher is first to realize the situation and secondly to reinstate himself or any other isolated individual into the group, which means to reactivate into the group the positive love bond without which no learning can take place. This, however, cannot be done by demonstrations of affection. The only way to achieve this consistent with the teacher's rôle is to stimulate interest in the work so that aggressive impulses can be turned into a united struggle with the task. It is at this exact point that the problem of 'method' intervenes.

Only when the teacher is free from anxiety can this object be attained. On the other hand if that condition is fulfilled the poorest class can be returned to order by being offered work of such a standard that it can be done with a measure of success. Co-operation of the whole group then becomes easy, since not only are the pupils satisfied, that is, in loving relationship with the teacher and with one another—but the latter shares this feeling since he thus attains his own aim, success in his teaching task.

DEAR MADAM,

Your Reviewer of the *Royal Road Readers*, expressing complete agreement with the theory described in the Teacher's Book, seems to be supporting this series as a 'pioneer and indeed revolutionary' contribution to the teaching of reading. This has led me to ask your permission to make some comments and to put a few questions to the Reviewer and Authors.

In using these Readers our first step, we are told, should be to 'go through the pictures with the pupils to make sure they know what the pictures represent' (p. 31). Thus 'we begin with whole words and not with isolated letters because "sounds without meaning are not language."' (p. 30).

I have shown the pictures to thirty children aged about six years and recorded what the pictures represent, in the children's own language. The figures in this list stand for the numbers of children:

Fox 0; dog 17; wolf 6; another dog 3; don't know 2; Is that a dog? Yes; bear, is it?

Log 0; piece of wood 8; log of wood 8; bit of wood 4; tree trunk 4; stick; tree stump; wood; off a tree; part of a tree; bit of a tree.

Rod 0; fishing line 10; fishing rod 6; whip 5; don't know 4; can't think; I think it's a thing for the seaside; fishing tackle (my brother went fishing once); catching fishes; a thing to catch fishes.

Web 0; spider's web 18; cobweb 7; kite, is it?; a pattern; don't know; can't think of that one; somebody drew it round and round and round and round.

Net 0; fishing net 26; frog's net; a bit like a shovel; I don't know 2. Nib 0; part of a pen 10; knife 6; writing nib 3; pen point 3; ink pen; writing pen; penknife; can't think of it; don't know 4.

Ink 0; bottle of ink 19; pot of ink 4; ink pot 2; ink bottle 2; what you put ink in; pen bottle; stuff to write with.

Jam 3; jam jar 8; pot of jam 8; jam pot 5; jar of jam 3; some jam; a milk churn or something or a bottle; from the post office.

Bat 10; cricket bat 20.

Van 3; car 15; motor car 9; a car 3. Man 19; part of a man 4; daddy 3; farmer 2; big boy 2.

Cat 12; pussycat 8; pussy 8; kitten 2. Cup 13; mug 17.

The only pictures the children recognized and named in accordance with pages 3 and 5 of Book 1 are pig, hat, bed, dog, bus. Seven of the pictures do not illustrate the authors' words to any of the children. Thirteen of them are described in various ways by the children and seldom in single syllable phonic words.

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

Are we not already in danger of throwing 'away completely all the experience the pupils have had of language, i.e. the speaking of it' (p. 18)? Also, we know that when we teach a person to read we place him within the reach of all kinds of literature. Whether this is of advantage or disadvantage to him and his fellows will depend on the degree to which he exercises his own reasoning as he interprets what has been set down. Are we now justified, by research, in training the children, from the start, to accept our interpretation of what is on the page whether it has meaning for them or not?

If we base our work on the language of Book 1, have we any ground for criticizing any method for teaching reading for 'a severe limitation of meaning and of vocabulary'? (pp. 19 and 20.)

On page 9, the way in which the children describe the pictures is 'the man is standing' etc. Not one child says, 'the man stands'. We know that 'meaning is supplied by a context of real things' (p. 19) and that meaning aids memory. So throughout 'this scheme letters have been consistently taught in words most of which have been illustrated'. We look again at 'the wicked bandit' who 'whetted his cutlass'; and then we try to like Books 2 and 3 better than Book 1. In the context of real things, are we to teach the children to enjoy the bandit at the bank, or Black Jack in the bedroom, or 'what they intended to do with the gorilla'?

One little girl told me that Book 3 was better than Book 2 but both of them were for boys. As an introduction to literature are we offering a worthy pattern of language to boys or to girls? Where do we expect the Royal Road to lead?

'The series is equally suitable for the young child of six making his first formal attempts at reading and the "backward" youngster of twelve making a fresh start.' (p. 23). We would

not contradict the authors here even though we could not share their confidence. Their reference to research causes us to persevere. Then we find advice on the method of using the books and 'the whole class may turn to page 4'.

Whether they are 'sixes or "backward" twelves' it is the children themselves who must do the learning. The whole class is always made up of unique individuals, no matter how often we have caused the whole class to turn the page.

We shall continue to be grateful for any contribution which research can make to progress in our understanding of children and in the recognition of the place of language in their development. Both these considerations will inevitably enter into the teaching of reading no matter which definitions or methods we may prefer, no matter what may be our reasons for preferring them.

(All quotations are from the Teacher's Book *The Royal Road Readers* Series except where otherwise stated.)

Yours truly,

B. M. CULHAM

91 Calton Avenue,
Dulwich Village,
London, S.E.21.

* * *

DEAR MADAM,

In the November *New Era*, p. 172, in M. François's excellent article on

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Inspectors in France, a salary scale for inspectors and teachers in France is given.

It is perfectly obvious at first glance that a bad mistake has been made, probably in translation, since according to this scale an Inspector-General or the Rector of a University would apparently get only £750, or something of the order of a third or a quarter of his actual salary. The mistake is a very unfortunate one since it may spread the notion that teachers in France are even worse paid than in England, whereas the contrary is true: English teachers are now among the worst paid in Europe.

The salaries of all public employees in France are settled by their position on a hierarchical classification. This was detailed in a law passed in 1946. All types of government posts are

classified and given a number, or to be more exact, a series of numbers, ranging from 100 to 800. By this number the salary of the individual is calculated. A man whose employment is graded as 100 earns 120% of the amount considered the minimum living wage. This minimum is fixed by a decree of the Council of Ministers.

Now apply this to the figures given on your scale. A headmaster or headmistress of a primary school is given 430 points, so that his starting salary is 843,000 francs per annum, that is 70,000 a month. After payment of income tax and superannuation this leaves a net salary of 66,000 francs per month. If, for example, he lives in Paris, an additional sum of 17,500 francs per month is paid. Furthermore, the children's allowance amounts monthly to 500 francs for one child,

about 3,000 francs for two children, 7,400 francs for three children, and 4,500 francs for every additional child. Thus the headmaster of a primary school in Paris who is married and has two children would get a net salary of about £86 a month.

English teachers will be interested to know that these salaries adjust themselves more or less automatically to the cost of living and that they are adjusted to the Civil Service scales. Thus in many ways French teachers are better off than their English colleagues under inflationary conditions.

Yours truly,

J. A. Lauwerys.

University of London

Institute of Education,

Malet Street, London, W.C.1.

Book Reviews

Through Nepal to Everest; The Ascent of Everest. (Educational Productions Ltd., 17 Denbigh Street, S.W.1. 35 mm. Price 25/- each).

These two filmstrips were tried in a blacked-out classroom in sunny daylight, as well as at night, with various groups of adolescent students of evening institutes and with senior schoolchildren. The frames were effective in both lights at twenty-three feet in a large classroom.

As these were adolescents in their leisure time, free to accept or reject and comment upon the films, the real value of these strips from both interest and educational standpoint is, possibly, underlined. As this form of adventurous life is so far out of their normal ken, our experience is that they either reject this form of the unknown or are only lukewarm in interest. This particularly applies to girls of this age. Therefore, it was all the more surprising that during the film their interest mounted although, as will be shown later, they made constructive criticism.

Through Nepal to Everest shows generally the type of country through which the expedition had to pass on their way to the slopes of Everest. *The Ascent of Everest* gives in more detail the climb itself from base to summit and omits scenes from Nepal, though both are of approximately the same length. Frames of the mountain climb are repeated to a certain extent in each film.

It is interesting, though perhaps not significant, that the older boys wanted more pictures of the climb and would

have been glad to forgo those of Nepal. Even the girls would have liked more photographs of the equipment taken; what the weight of kit mentioned really looked like in bulk, and of materials used for clothing. The claw studded boots were interesting as a personal detail and gave rise to spontaneous questions on all allied aspects of provision for mountain climbing. It suggests that at this personal age the pupil can be led from the personal details to the general subject. This could be extended further, for all felt that the frames showing the ladder and the bridge of logs were especially good in creating the kind of atmosphere that holds the attention of the adolescent. A closer examination of natural features started from the frame of the pinnacle of ice and the crevasses, and the climber crossing the iced pine log. This touched them with a realization of the fear that made interest all the more intense. After this, pictures of stretches of snow became realized hazards. This type of picture builds up an atmosphere where the achievement, skill, endeavour and danger of the expedition was brought home to the young people.

The story was easy to follow, but several youngsters felt the sequences could have been better arranged. The anti-climax whereby, in the second film, the climax of the arrival at the summit is followed by frames showing the descent, was critically received.

Since we plan filmstrip programmes for young people, perhaps their quick reactions might be of value if listed.

(1) The language of the pamphlet must be much simpler if the film

is to be used for younger children.

- (2) One group said they would have preferred the film black and white, but one boy said the colour was 'like wonderland'.
- (3) One boy would have liked more detail of the climb on the maps and less other detail, i.e. arrows.
- (4) All agreed that now they had seen these filmstrips they would like to see the film *The Ascent of Everest* and the filmstrips would help them to get much more out of it. Only nine out of twenty-one, in one group, had bothered to see the film when it was shown locally.

*G. W. Jordan
E. M. Fisher*

The New Era, January, 1956

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The Teaching of Modern Languages. Report of the Unesco Seminar on the Teaching of Modern Languages. (Unesco 1955).

Changes in the political, economic, social and educational fields have compelled teachers in many countries to reconsider the objectives and methods of foreign language teaching; and this publication, *The Teaching of Modern Languages*, is to be welcomed as a timely, practical and provocative document. It is edited by Professor T. Anderson, Yale University and the Unesco Secretariat, and is an outcome of the seminar, 'The Contribution of the Teaching of Modern Languages towards Education for Living in a World Community', held in 1953 in Ceylon. This was one of a series of seminars organized by Unesco for considering the potential role of the school curriculum in developing international understanding.

The 'humanistic' and 'cultural' aims of language learning, when it ceases to be merely the acquisition of a useful skill and becomes a part of education in the wider sense of the term, are considered in chapters I and II. Whether one is in agreement or not with such views set forth as, 'the development of the personality arising out of the mastery of a new idiom', of 'the development of physical control through learning the control of the organs of speech', or 'the theories of the training of the mind', the main dis-

cussions reported should be of very real practical value to all concerned with the teaching of modern languages. Of special interest are the discussions centering on the implications of taking this broader view of modern language teaching; such implications as for example:

- (a) the length of a course which gives sufficient time for developing a skill and using that skill as an instrument of education;
- (b) the means available for arousing the interest of a child in learning a foreign language;
- (c) the problems confronting a child in understanding a foreign culture;
- (d) the problems besetting countries where 'linguistic imperialism' has caused resentment or ambivalence towards the foreign language which has usurped the native tongue;
- (e) the principles that should guide the selection and production of text-books;
- (f) the education and the training of the teacher.

Another valuable contribution of this report is the section on methodology, its emphasis on the need for the efficient teaching of the language as a skill, as a pre-requisite for the fulfilment of any wider aim. 'By all means let modern language teaching be something more than the imparting of a skill; but the skill itself must be there as a solid foundation. Other-

wise all the fine principles enumerated in the two earlier chapters will stand little chance of being translated into action.' This section deals with the fundamental principles of foreign language teaching, the relation of reading ability to the other language skills, the use of audio-visual aids in language teaching, the functions and problems of measurement, and the psychological characteristics of the learner of a foreign language at different age levels. This last point—the optimum age for the introduction of a foreign language—is a controversial but a crucial issue particularly in some countries, and the chapter 'Modern Language teaching in the Primary School' by T. Anderson outlines a very important trend in teaching foreign languages in the United States of America.

The problems of teaching modern languages are both general and individual. Some of the special problems facing individual countries are described. The Seminar was attended by forty delegates from eighteen nations, engaged in the teaching of modern languages at various levels in a variety of situations. The Appendix, which lists the members of the Seminar, will indicate the width of outlook represented. The comprehensiveness of outlook makes *The Teaching of Modern Languages* an illuminating and a lively report. It issues a challenge, 'for it recognizes a new orientation in the teaching of modern languages'.

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